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of the National Education Association

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

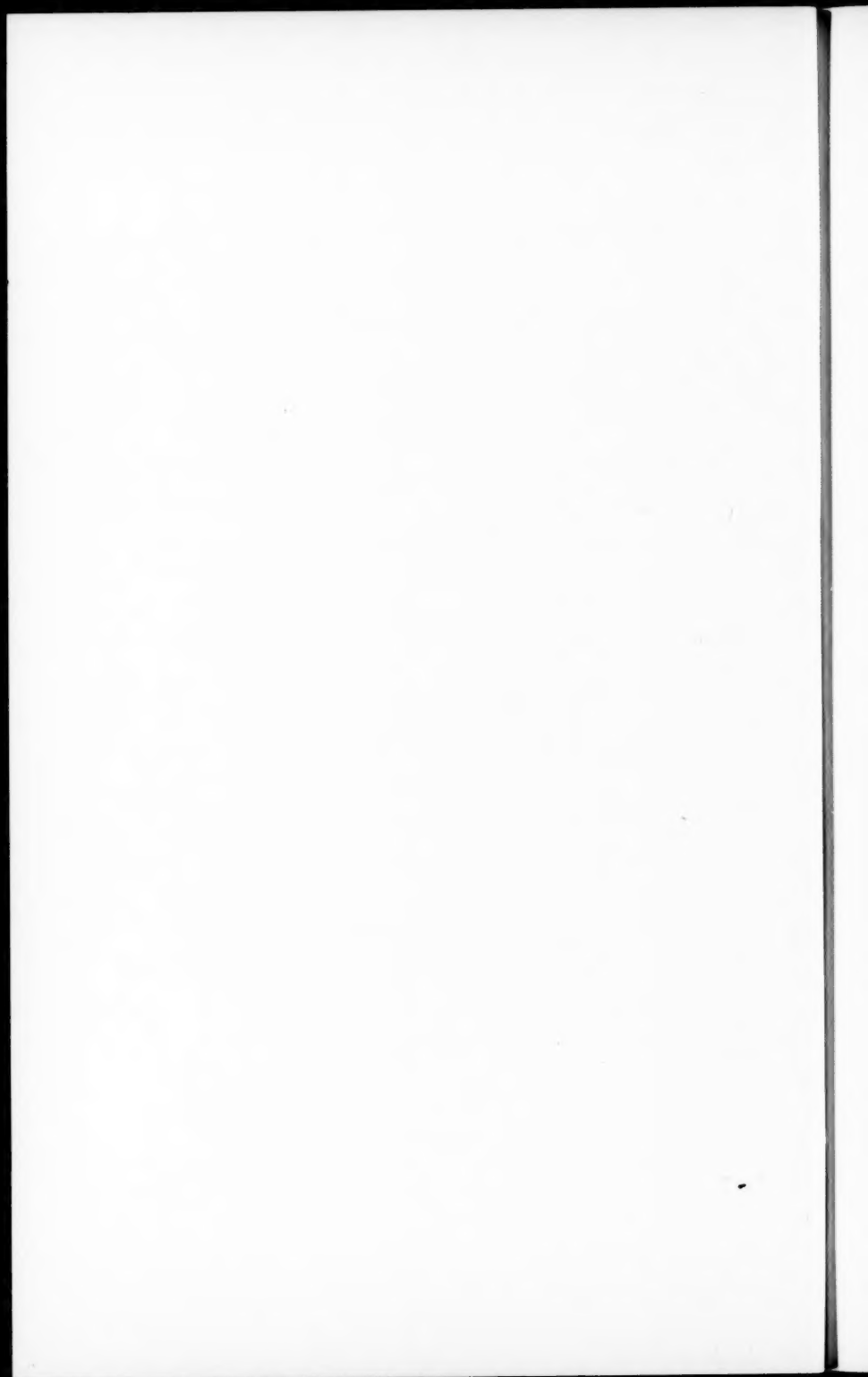
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National Education Association *of secondary-school*
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at

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

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Edited by
H. V. CHURCH
Secretary of the Association

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NINETEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION
of the
Department of
Secondary-School Principals
of the
NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The nineteenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals met in Atlantic City, New Jersey on Tuesday and Wednesday, February 26 and 27, 1935.

THE FIRST GENERAL SESSION

The first session of the nineteenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was called to order by President Charles F. Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education, Little Rock, Arkansas, at 9:50 A. M. in the Vernon Room, Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey.

Mr. Allen read the resolution of Harold Ellsworth Warner, Principal of Hine Junior High School, Washington, D. C., which set the work of the Tercentenary Celebration in process. The President then introduced the general chairman of the Tercentenary Celebration, who read his introductory address.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

CALVIN O. DAVIS

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Michigan
and

Chairman of the Tercentenary Planning Committee

Members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals
and Friends:

Members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals
to express myself in the form of language made memorable by
our illustrious Lincoln.

Fifteen score years ago this month our fathers brought
forth on this continent America's first secondary school, conceived in religious reverence and dedicated to the proposition
that learning is an essential element to the perpetuity of a free
democracy.

Now we are engaged in a great educational controversy
testing whether that theory, or any similar theory so conceived
and so dedicated, can permanently endure. We here to-day are
met in a great gathering of the friends and supporters of that
theory. We have come together in Atlantic City to initiate an
elaborate tercentenary celebration in honor of that first school
and of the principles for which it stood. It is altogether fitting
and proper that we should do this.

But in a larger sense we cannot fittingly commemorate the
event that has given rise to the occasion. The brave men and
women who have labored long and faithfully in our secondary
schools throughout the past three hundred years have already
consecrated the principal of free public education far above
our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note
nor long remember what we say here this week, but it can
never forget what the patient teachers and farsighted administrators
have done throughout three centuries to make the
secondary schools of our nation what they are to-day. It is,
therefore, of paramount importance for us of the present generation
to be dedicated here to the great unfinished work which
they who have gone before have thus far so nobly advanced.
It is rather for us to be dedicated here to the great task remaining
before us: that from these honored pioneers we take

increased devotion to that cause for which they gave such a full measure of faith and energy and application; that we here highly resolve that the early educational leaders and their descendants shall not have striven in vain to make a secondary-school education available to every normal boy and girl in the land; that liberal culture for all shall, under God, have a new birth of freedom; and that high schools of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not vanish from this country.

Mr. Davis then introduced Principal Harold Ellsworth Warner of Hine Junior High School of Washington, D. C., who was greeted with applause.

The general chairman then presented Mr. R. M. Robinson, chairman of the Publicity Committee, who came forward and received his plaudits.

Mr. Davis at this juncture presented Joseph L. Powers, Head Master of Boston Public Latin School, Boston, Massachusetts, who read his paper, *The First American Secondary School*.

THE FIRST AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOL

JOSEPH L. POWERS

Head Master, Boston Public Latin School.

Last Friday the nation laid aside its ordinary routine and spent a day of contemplation; its annual tribute of honor and reverence to its first great leader. Our thoughts reached back over an interval of about two centuries—to 1732—to a time when this land was a British colony, loyal and contented. The notion of an independent American nation had not yet entered men's minds. Life was primitive and hard. Civilization held its footing along a narrow strip of the Atlantic seaboard; beyond that lay unexplored wilderness.

That is a long backward look. To us, those are indeed ancient days. And yet in 1732 the Latin School was a venerable institution to the people of Boston; for it had been their school and that of their forefathers for almost a century.

Here, then, is an institution with a unique history, and an unbroken one; a public institution from the very start; but a living witness, not only of our whole national history, but of the entire development of the life of our people in this land.

Let us get some kind of picture of the founding of that first public school. To begin with, Boston was just a handful of rude dwellings, huddled about a thatch roofed, mud walled church. A meeting of the men of the hamlet had been called, in the church, to discuss and transact whatever business was of common interest. In the course of the meeting, it was decided to start a free school. There was no ceremony about it. They didn't call upon Governor Winthrop to proclaim that the people of Boston were establishing something new, something unknown in the world up to that time. That is exactly what they WERE doing; but it seemed to them just the natural thing to do in their situation. The old Town Records simply say: "On the 13th of the second month, 1635—Att a General meeting upon publique notice—it was—generally agreed upon that our brother Philemon Pormort shall be intreated to become scholemaster for the teaching and nourtering of childref with us."

Bear in mind that it was hardly five years since the first boatload of Puritans had sprung ashore on that little peninsula.

Life was still anything but secure. They were far away from their homeland, on the edge of an unknown wilderness. Famine, pestilence, an attack by natives, could wipe them out before help could come to them. And they calmly laid their plans for the education of their children. Try to find a parallel in all history. They weren't concerned about an elementary school, mark you. It's a commentary on the cultural level of those people, that they could apparently leave instruction in reading to the parents. They founded a school for the teaching of Latin and Greek.

How many children were "with them" then we don't know; probably very few. From 1635 to 1645, at any rate, the school was held in the homes of the Masters. We have little information about Pormort. There is nothing that shows his qualifications beyond the fact that such an influential and scholarly man as the Rev. John Cotton must have approved of the choice. Pormort was probably a young man; for he and his wife Susanna had been received as members of the First Church in 1633 and we have the record of the birth of their son Lazarus in 1634. He didn't hold the position of Schoolmaster for much more than a year. He would probably never have been chosen had the town fathers realized that he was already infected with the liberal views of Anne Hutchinson. He joined a little group that left Boston and set out into the unknown—really exiles—to found a settlement of their own at Exeter.

The Mastership was then conferred upon Daniel Maude, who we know was a man of culture; for he was Master of Arts from Emmanuel College, Cambridge. He was a man well along in life, for he had attended that college about twenty-five years before John Harvard and John Milton. Savage, in his *History of New England*, asserts that in those early days there were as many Cambridge and Oxford graduates in these settlements as in any population of equal size in any part of England. Those Puritans were people of intelligence and vision. And while probably no thought of throwing off political allegiance to England had occurred to them, they knew that they were planting a colony whose future was entirely in its own hands. Such men as they would realize that a project like theirs necessitated trained leadership—spiritual as well as temporal—and intelligent coöperation on the part of the whole group. That called for education beyond the mere rudiments.

In their experience, too, politics and religion had been inextricably and painfully tangled; and they looked upon the Bible as the rule of life as well as of faith. Not only must the ministry be properly trained to preach and counsel, but they must be able to read the Scriptures in the Greek and the Latin texts.

So, from the very founding of the school up to the time of the Revolution, Latin and Greek, with, of course, exercise in the use of the mother tongue, made up the bulk of the instruction. The boys learned "writing and ciphering," too; but after the first few years, they attended a separate school for these subjects, so that the classical atmosphere of the Latin School was left untainted by such utilitarian pursuits.

The first school building, as such, was erected in 1645, on the north side of what is now School Street, at the rear of King's Chapel. The site is about the corner of the lawn of the City Hall; and it is fairly accurately marked by the statue of one of the School's most famous sons, Benjamin Franklin. The street for many years labored under the cumbersome name of Latin-Grammar-School Street; and it was infested by Latin School boys for two hundred years. The first four Latin School houses were built there; and the first two on the site just mentioned, and the third and fourth directly opposite.

If we are of sufficient interest to the people three centuries hence, they will be able to find ample records of us and our doings—unless perchance these should be obliterated by some Mongolian or other invasion. For we have, I hope, learned our lesson. Those worthy Puritan fathers, though they builded for permanence, didn't plan sufficiently for our convenience. Isn't it a remarkable thing—and remarkably unfortunate—that although Ezekiel Cheever, who ruled the School from 1670 to 1708, was without question the most notable teacher of the Colonial days, and his Latin "Accidence" was the authoritative textbook for years after his death, we haven't any idea what he looked like; except that he wore a long, pointed, white beard, and that the slow, ominous stroking of that beard was a timely signal for all boys to "stand clear"?

The highly dramatic period of the School's history was, of course, the years just preceding the Revolution. Boston was really the fountainhead of the revolutionary movement; the

people were full of the spirit of liberty, and the feelings of the people were naturally reflected and indeed crystallized in the School. This was true despite the personal influence of the Head Master. John Lovell filled that office from 1734 to 1775—41 years—"the pride of Boston's parents and the terror of its youth." He was a firm adherent to the cause of the King. But his family was typical of many Boston families in those heart breaking times. For his son James, his assistant in the School, was as ardent a patriot as the father was a loyalist. Picture the schoolroom: the two desks in diagonally opposite corners; at the one the father, far along in years, stern and uncompromising, preaching loyalty to the Crown and to the old order of things; at the other, the son, young, alert, magnetic, enthusiastic, glowing with the new spirit of patriotism. You can imagine how tense the atmosphere must have been in that room.

From the time that the British came to occupy the town, in 1768, the School was at the focus of all the activity and excitement. Diagonally across the Street stood the headquarters of Gen. Haldimand, who commanded under Gen. Gage. As perhaps you know, School Street slopes up towards Tremont; and Beacon Street, which continues School beyond the intersection, is very steep up to where the State House now stands. That was a perfect coast. Now it was the custom of the boys, in winter, to bring their sleds to school and park them in the yard. When Master Lovell dismissed school with his usual "Deponite libros!" there would be a stampede of boys with sleds up to the top of the hill; then sled after sled would whisk down Beacon Street, flash across Tremont, and on down School to Cornhill. Tremont and School Streets made a dangerous intersection even in those days.

Well, this procedure annoyed General Haldimand's servant, who proceeded to throw plenty of ashes on the coast. There is a letter dated January 29, 1775, which tells us what followed. "The lads made a muster and chose a committee to wait upon the General, who admitted them, and heard their complaint, which was couched in very genteel terms, complaining that their fathers before 'em had improved it as a coast from time immemorial, etc." He ordered his servant to repair the damage, saying that he had trouble enough with Boston men, and wouldn't have any with Boston boys. He "acquainted

the Governor with the affair, who observed that it was impossible to beat the notion of Liberty out of the people, as it was rooted in 'em from their childhood." That was the first victory of the Revolution.

Harrison Gray Otis was one of the boys in school at that time. He was accustomed to come, from home in the morning, up Tremont Street to School. On the morning of the following 19th of April, so he writes, he found Tremont Street choked with soldiers, under arms and ready to march, so that he couldn't pass. He learned that they were Percy's brigade, about to start for Lexington. We can picture how his coat-tail must have stood out behind him as he raced back and around by Cornhill and up School Street to carry the exciting news to his schoolmates. And as he burst into the school-room, there was Head Master Lovell standing at his desk, his face flushed with indignation. "War's begun, and School's done," he announced, "Deponite libros!" And thus occurred the only break in the School's history in these three centuries. For not until after the British evacuated Boston the next year were classes resumed.

But John Lovell had a daughter, too; and though she was the object of the attentions of one of Gage's ordnance officers, she was a patriot like her brother James. When the British attacked Bunker Hill, orders came to the Battery in Boston to bombard the redoubts. It was then discovered that all the six-pounder cannon had been supplied with twelve-pound balls! It may have been just coincidence, but there has always been the suspicion that the fine hand of Judith Lovell could be traced in it.

John Lovell must have regarded his long life's work as a failure. Both his children were rebels. The feeling of the school had turned definitely against him. And he must have almost choked with rage when he heard that five of his old boys had signed their names to that infamous Declaration of Independence.

The trying days came to an end for Boston. Henry Knox, another Latin School boy, by means of oxen and sledges, brought on over the mountains from Ticonderoga, a long procession of artillery and planted it on Dorchester Heights, enabling Washington to force the evacuation of Boston by the

British. And when Lord Howe sailed away down the Harbor, he had on board the two Lovells; the father his guest, the son his prisoner.

For some forty years after the Revolution, the School went through a period of depression and disorganization. Perhaps that was to be expected. The Head Masters failed to enlist the respect of the pupils, and discipline was at a very low ebb. Parents were dissatisfied. The first School Committee was formed in 1809 and was at once put under pressure for "more easie and delightful methods" than those practised at the old School. That pressure, by the way, has never been entirely relieved to this day. One of the results of it was the founding, in 1821, of the Boston English High School, the first of its kind in the country, whose doors were opened to other boys than those college bound. But a more immediate result was the selection of Benjamin Apthorp Gould as Head Master of the Latin School. This was a happy choice. Gould was still a senior at Harvard, but took over his new work with youthful vigor, enthusiasm, and success. He restored order and scholarship. He began the modernization of the School; and many of its traditional practices—such as the classroom and public declamation—had their origin with him. He laid the beginnings of the School Library, which now comprises some 6,000 volumes, many of them rare and valuable. He abolished corporal punishment, issued regular reports to the parents, and placed squarely on them the responsibility of their son's behavior. Gould resigned in 1828, to go into business, but he had given the School an impetus which has persisted.

The School Committee exercised increasing authority over the conduct of the School, to the point where they nearly ruined the good work of one of the most capable Head Masters. Francis Gardner, 1851-1876, was a rugged, forthright sort of man, much loved and much hated, and one of the most renowned men in the Boston of his day. During the last six years of his regime, the Committee imposed upon the School an absurdly ambitious curriculum, aiming at "general culture." This was done in the face of his vigorous opposition, and produced what was described as "a mongrel university."

Shortly after Gardner's death, Moses Merrill became Head Master. He succeeded in reorganizing the curriculum on a

sane but modern basis. While retaining the Latin and the Greek as the nucleus, he gave due emphasis to English, the modern languages, mathematics, science, and history. Since his time there have been only minor changes. He was looked up to as a man of high character and strong moral influence—a truly Mosaic figure.

The Head Masters who have held office since 1900 many of you know.

Arthur Irving Fiske, the peerless Greek scholar, the frictionless disciplinarian, diminutive of body but gigantic of soul.

Henry Pennypacker, athlete and scholar, a Greek god in physique, rugged but gentle; a man in whose presence sham or subterfuge could not live.

Patrick Thomas Campbell, sympathetic but just, humorous and kindly, the friend of every boy who ever came in contact with him; an educator sanely progressive; now Superintendent of Schools in Boston, to the great benefit of all concerned.

In the pre-Revolutionary School, the subject matter was almost exclusively Latin and Greek. Every passage was a fine logical exercise, an exercise in the fundamental relations of ideas and the words and phrases used to express them. But the School taught more than Latin and Greek. It taught BOYS through the Latin and Greek. These were the instruments with which it moulded thoughts, convictions, habits, and character. The Master knew, as every real teacher knows, that there is no royal road to education; that any scheme which aims to lead a boy through fields of effortless delight, offering him only such matters as entertain him or rouse an immediate interest, is a delusion and a rank injustice to the boy. Mental drifting is easy and pleasant. Thinking—consecutive, logical thinking, is laborious. Boys and girls—and their elders—will resort to many expedients to avoid it. But they CAN learn by experience, if they WILL, that there is great satisfaction—as much kick, if you will—in facing a hard, even a disagreeable job, going through with it, and doing it right, as there is in making a desperate stand on the goal line. Life mixes the rough with the smooth; it often gives us

rather more of the rough. If education is preparation for life, then hedonism is not a satisfactory educational philosophy.

In the Latin School, ancient and modern, the subject matter is never sugar-coated to make it seem more palatable than it really is; nor are the marks sugar-coated to lead the boy to think he's brighter than he really is. It is there an accepted principle, that nothing is finished until it's finished right.

Has this school, with its classical curriculum, been on the wrong track all these years? In the last century of educational development and experimentation, the Latin School may be regarded as the "control." How have the results of the experiments compared with those of the control?

The walls of the new auditorium are surmounted by a frieze made up of the names of eminent alumni; they are a select list from a long roll of Latin School boys who have been outstanding in the political and civic life of city, state and nation.

John Hancock, Signer of the Declaration of Independence.

Samuel Adams, Signer of the Declaration of Independence.

Benjamin Franklin, Signer of the Declaration of Independence.

William Hooper, Signer of the Declaration of Independence.

Robert Treat Paine, Signer of the Declaration of Independence.

John Leverett, President of Harvard College.

Samuel Langdon, President of Harvard College.

Edward Everett, President of Harvard College.

Charles William Eliot, President of Harvard College.

Cotton Mather, Noted minister in Colonial times.

James Bowdoin, Governor of Massachusetts.

James Lovell, Patriot. Usher in the School.

Henry Knox, General and Secretary of War under Washington.

Christopher Gore, Governor of Massachusetts.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, Philosopher, essayist, poet.

Samuel Francis Smith, Minister. Author of "America".

Charles Sumner, U. S. Senator. Abolitionist.

Wendell Phillips, Orator, Abolitionist.

John Lothrop Motley, Historian. U. S. Minister to Austria and England.

John Bernard Fitzpatrick, Roman Catholic Bishop of Boston.

Henry Ward Beecher, Minister. Abolitionist. Teacher in the School.

William Maxwell Evarts, Secretary of State. U. S. Attorney-General.

Charles Devens, General. U. S. Attorney-General.

Edward Everett Hale, Minister. Orator. Author.

Francis James Child, Author. Editor.

Samuel Pierpont Langley, Physicist. Pioneer in Aviation.

Phillips Brooks, Orator. Episcopal Bishop of Boston. Teacher in the School.

Henry Lee Higginson, Banker. "Boston's First Citizen."

Edward Charles Pickering, Astronomer.

Martin Milmore, Sculptor.

Mathew Harkins, Roman Catholic Bishop of Providence.

A full list of the alumni would read like a compendium of American History and American life. Obviously, even the old rigidly classical offering did not so narrow the outlook of these boys that they found themselves unequipped to deal with the problems of life in widely divergent fields.

I wish at this point to quote from the Journal of the N. E. A. of December last:

"Since the founding of the Boston Latin Grammar School in 1635, secondary education has passed through one transition after another, each essential in view of the growing needs of democracy. From the Latin grammar school to the academy to the free high school as we now know it, the story of secondary education is one of constant adaptation to changing needs. The adaptation must be continued and accelerated if the secondary school is to keep abreast of a social scene changing with increasing rapidity and to play any significant part at the outposts of human needs.

"Let the Tercentenary Celebration pay homage to the achievements of the past—they are magnificent! But it is of infinitely greater importance that this occasion be utilized as a period of concentration on *what is to be done with the secondary school to make it an ever more effective social tool. The people will decide, because the high school belongs to them.*"

A study of the effectiveness of high-school training is indeed imperative at this time; for there is some doubt about it in the minds of the people who own them. The people will not be reassured if we go on the assumption that everything that's new in education is therefore right and that everything that's old is wrong.

I would take issue with the implication here that the Latin School and similar schools are mere relics of the past—that they have outlived their usefulness. Our graduates enter colleges over the whole length and breadth of the land, and maintain themselves well. But from the very beginning our closest relationship has been with Harvard, which was founded one year later than the School. More of our boys go there than to any other institution; and we furnish about ten per cent of each freshman class. Our group enters consistently with a higher PERCENTAGE of honors in the College Board Examinations than does the group from any other school. This year, though the percentage of honors for all entrants was .16, a falling off for the schools in general, the Latin School boys made a new high of 40%. You can't conclude from this that the School is simply a cramming place for the examinations. For every year the School gets a letter from Dean Leighton notifying us that the Latin School has a higher percentage of men on the Dean's list than has any other school group. Significant, in this connection, is the fact that these boys are not largely pursuing in college the same subjects they studied at School. Not twenty per cent continue the Latin or Greek. They enter unaccustomed fields and do equally well in them. This is our experience over long years. Does this throw any light on the question of transfer value?

The School has never felt that the purpose of its training is immediate utility. Its studies are not expected to function directly in the activities of the community, nor to be directly related to the activities of any particular profession. We are old-fashioned in our educational views; so hidebound and moss-backed as to harbor the conviction, in spite of what the psychologists tell us, that there is such a thing as mental training, that it is possible to develop trained intelligence.

We find ourselves unable to subscribe to the thesis that the secondary school of the future is going to solve our econ-

omic and social problems by incorporating in the curriculum the multiple, complex activities of the life round about. In the first place, it simply can't be done. The field is too broad. Our social, industrial, and economic institutions are in a state of flux; no one could be found qualified to teach them with authority. Have our bankers and business men shown themselves reliable guides in their own special fields?

Then what is the way out? Is it possible for the secondary school so to "teach and nurture the children with us" that these many have a better chance of keeping their feet, and their heads, and their bearings, in the mists and the turbulence of the next decade or two? How can they be prepared for an indefinite future? It seems to me that the only training that can be depended upon under such conditions is that which cultivates habits of hard work, of hard thinking, of concentration; which develops and nourishes ideals of truth and honesty and loyalty and service and coöperation and reverence.

That has been the goal of Latin School teaching for the past three centuries; and that will be its goal, God willing, for the next three centuries.

Assistant Commissioner George M. Wiley of the University of the State of New York, Albany, New York, followed, reading his paper, *The Philosophies that Have Guided Secondary Education During the Past Three Hundred Years.*

THE PHILOSOPHIES THAT HAVE GUIDED SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE PAST THREE HUNDRED YEARS

GEORGE M. WILEY

Assistant Commissioner of Education
State Department of Education
Albany, New York

(An Abridgement)

It is difficult to probe the philosophy of a people. The slogans of ancient movements or even of modern phantasies are not sufficient. To understand adequately the philosophy of education in any age we must bring into perspective the fundamental thinking underlying all basic social institutions of the period.

The first half of this three hundred year period witnessed little, if anything, that pointed toward our modern conception of popular education, and only within the last half century has secondary education assumed any widespread social significance.

Education is always made up of many factors, of which the school is only one. In colonial America the school was for a long time a relatively small factor. The home with its duties and responsibilities for children as well as for parents, with its manual tasks essential in a pioneer age, with its strict observance of the Sabbath, and with its stern religious instruction, exercised a powerful influence in the training or education of the youth.

At the close of the first century of secondary education in America we find that very little change had occurred in the subject matter of the grammar schools. The forest wilderness was still at the very edge of the clearing about the log cabin or only a short distance from the small settlement. The few wealthy and more prosperous families patronized the grammar schools, but popular education even in the elementary level was far from being realized, and the establishment of grammar schools even in such a fostering colony as Massachusetts was evaded by the large majority of towns. In fact,

for the century and a half or during the almost entire period of the grammar school it recognized only one function.

After presenting the curriculum for the Boston Latin School in 1789, Inglis says that "little change had developed" within the entire colonial period. It was still "composed exclusively of the study of Latin and Greek."

Within a narrow compass, however, these schools rendered a most outstanding service in the preparatory training of superior young men for the ministry. But notwithstanding this contribution of the grammar schools, a century which witnessed witchcraft, the whipping post, religious persecution and superstition, and banned joyousness from life, could not possibly develop a charter for childhood.

There were movements under way at the beginning of our national era which were to gather momentum within a few decades out of which came the prophecy of public elementary and secondary education for all the children of all the people. There were of course many, doubtless the great majority, who felt that if schools were maintained, let them be supported by the churches, by the parents of the pupils, by wealthy patrons, or by the various societies. On the other hand the theory of popular democracy was beginning to take root. Some vision of the fundamental relationship between the new theory of democracy and popular education was appearing at least in the great minds of many of the leaders of the country. Washington's statement in his Farewell Address in which he emphasized the importance of "institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge," Jefferson's vision that welfare depended largely upon the education of the people without regard to wealth or birth, John Jay's insistence that knowledge must be the soul of a republic, Madison's belief that popular government without popular information may be a tragedy—these expressions indicate the broad social philosophy which made up in part at least the very corner stone of the new government. Seldom is there to be found a better illustration of a philosophy of social and political life pointing toward a broad educational policy as the only insurance for mutual social responsibility and individual opportunity.

The academy was rapidly displacing the grammar school and becoming more and more numerous in the various parts

of the country. The academy was in one sense a protest against the narrow, formal curriculum, the emphasis on Latin and Greek, in the grammar school which as late as the beginning of the nineteenth century showed the introduction of no new subjects of study. But how easily did the academy yield to the traditional influences of its predecessor the grammar school, and to the commanding authority of the college. Nevertheless the curriculum of the academy became much broader; it offered science, mathematics, music, and other courses. While the academies soon became largely college preparatory in character, the demand for more general courses and preparation for the "real business of living" resulted occasionally in positive progressive steps, again prophetic in character.

The growth of the academy during the first half or three-quarters of the nineteenth century was significant. It insured a broader base for secondary education than had previously obtained. However, the gradual development of a social consciousness carried with it an increasing demand for free public secondary education and resulted in the rapid growth of the public high school.

Among the powerful forces which exerted large influence in this movement toward a new social philosophy was the attitude of labor, the growing consciousness on the part of workers in the factories which were found in rapidly increasing numbers in the growing industrial communities. While the spinning jenny and the power loom brought trade and an apparent prosperity, long working hours and impossible living as well as working conditions were common everywhere. Women and children were being sacrificed on the altar of material gain. The revolt against these conditions moved slowly but surely. Some laws were passed to better the working people, hours were shortened, but especially do we note the growing interest being shown in the welfare and in the rights of children. Knight says that "the early labor forces helped to overcome some of the inertia and indifference and selfishness of the time and to stir up active interest in public schools. * * This awakening of a class consciousness appeared as the first clear demand that human rights be placed above property rights or at least on an equal footing with them, and that education be considered a proper activity of a properly constituted government."

Another significant movement in America which has profoundly influenced our social philosophy and thereby aided in making more democratic our system of secondary education is seen in the westward trend toward new frontiers. It is quite possible that the real meaning of American democracy did not become dynamic in our social thinking until this great trek was well under way.

The fusion of the youthful pioneer spirit of the West and the older conservatism of the East, when focused upon our increasingly difficult social and economic problems, brought to the entire country a new conception of the social significance of widespread free public secondary education as an essential element in the realization of the ideals of American social democracy. At the close of the century when we were reaching the end of the western frontier, we were also witnessing the beginnings of the greatest scientific advancement which the world had ever witnessed.

The growing complexity of our social and economic life has made necessary an increasingly complex secondary-school curriculum. It is the challenge of our social philosophy which explains two important developments of secondary education in America during the past few years. The first of these is the far greater attention that is being given to individual differences. The approach to this problem must be not only scientific but eminently sympathetic. The second is the increasing importance of social studies as a basic feature of the curriculum throughout both junior and senior high-school levels. This trend is noted in the recent National Survey of Secondary Education, and has also been given great impetus through the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association.

If it is the function of the secondary school to serve society, then the subjects of study and the materials of instruction must be determined by the contribution which they make toward the realization of this aim. This must mean the development of the best in each individual, a respect for and interest in the rights and welfare of others, and regardless of creed, a reverence for the Infinite.

There is encouraging evidence that these fundamental principles of individual and social life are being accepted.

Fundamental changes in curriculum offerings necessary to bring this about are being worked out. Definite steps in these directions are found in the secondary-school curriculums throughout the country.

The readjustments now being made in the secondary school stress the necessity for a closer relationship between the school and the community. This means that the social studies are being given major consideration. The social studies laboratory which is all about us is now for the first time becoming a dynamic phase of secondary education. As we look into the progressive schools of to-day we see a large place which this subject is beginning to play as a basic common denominator for all pupils in all secondary schools whatever may be their later objectives in life. Anything less than this is unthinkable in the schools of a social democracy.

Social responsibility and individual character cannot be considered apart from each other. In the final analysis the type of social order which a community or a commonwealth may attain will depend upon the character of the individual citizens. As stated in that epoch-making report of 1918:

In a democratic society ethical character becomes paramount among the objectives of the secondary school. Among the means for developing ethical character may be mentioned the wise selection of content and methods of instruction in all subjects of study, the social contacts of pupils with one another and with their teachers, the opportunities afforded by the organization and administration of the school for the development on the part of pupils of the sense of personal responsibility and initiative, and, above all, the spirit of service and the principles of true democracy which should permeate the entire school—principal, teachers, and pupils.

Even though we stand at the threshold of a greater tomorrow, this program very appropriately pauses to pay tribute to those who have gone before. Notwithstanding much of the iconoclastic treatment of the philosophy of our fathers, they did believe in the fundamental principles of democracy. We cannot lose sight of some of the sterling qualities in the men of yesterday even though we see clearly in perspective some of the limitations of the social and economic order in which they lived. Many of the blessings of American civiliza-

tion of the moment, and even in the midst of difficulties they are manifold, are due not to our own wisdom but rather to the generations preceding—to those outstanding institutions, the home, the church, the school, to the devotion of fathers and mothers, who were never selfishly individualistic in their philosophy but who gave of themselves and of their means without stint that their children and their children's children might come into a better social heritage.

If we meet the problems of to-day with the same sincerity and with the same devotion to high ideals shown by those who have gone before, we shall continue to insure increasingly better opportunities for our children and by this means help to make possible a better society for to-morrow.

President Allen at this time appointed the nominating committee.

New England group: Paul E. Elicher, Newtonville, Massachusetts; H. Dean Pearl, Burlington, Vermont; Milton D. Proctor, Portland, Maine; Robert H. Earley, Wallingford, Connecticut.

Middle States and Maryland: John H. Tyson, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; L. H. Strough, Niagara Falls; H. A. Smith, Washington, D. C.

Southern: W. L. Spencer, Montgomery, Alabama; Mary V. McBee, Charleston, South Carolina; M. E. Ligon, Lexington, Kentucky; Homer L. Garrett, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

North Central: John D. Hull, Springfield, Missouri; A. E. MacQuarrie, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Neal M. Wherry, Lawrence, Kansas; L. A. Fulwider, Freeport, Illinois; Edgar G. Johnston, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Western: L. E. Plummer, Fullerton, California; G. N. Kefauvre, Stanford, California; George H. Geyer, Westwood, California.

Chairman Davis introduced William John Cooper, Professor of Education of George Washington University, Washington, D. C., who read his paper, *Great Leaders of Secondary Education*.

GREAT LEADERS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER

Professor of Education, George Washington University
Washington, D. C.

(An Abridgement)

Great leaders of secondary education may be teachers, administrators, or others outside of secondary schools whose work directly influenced those schools. Now in America, it happens that the first great leader of secondary education was an actual teacher of boys who gave his long life to classroom experience with them. Ezekiel Cheever, sixth head master of the Boston Public Latin School, was born in London, January 25, 1614, and came to Boston in 1637 only seven years after its settlement. He taught in New Haven, Ipswich, and Charlestown, before he became Master of the Grammar School at Boston. The methods which he employed can only be imagined from a few extracts left. They are exemplified probably in his *Accidence*¹ and are portrayed more at length by Nathaniel Hawthorne. In *Grandfather's Chair* he takes a peep into a schoolroom on a winter's day. He sees the bright blaze of fire from the fireplace, sees the clouds of smoke come out into the room and slowly settle upon the wall and ceiling. He imagines Cheever teaching a group of boys and pictures two of them getting a caning from the master for playing in school. There is not much to be said for a master whose life's work was teaching the rudiments of Latin. Nearly two centuries later, Charles William Eliot, President of Harvard University, wrote an inscription on Cheever for the First Church in Boston as follows:

"For seventy years, the skillful, diligent, faithful teacher of Greek and Latin to young New England Puritans. He taught also by precept and example, independence of spirit, piety, honor, reasonableness, and joy in earnest work."

The standard bearer of this period (eighteenth century) is that American born genius in many fields, Benjamin Franklin. Especially broad-minded was he in education, and in 1743, he drew up proposals for a new secondary school, a

¹A short textbook on Latin grammar.

pamphlet entitled *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania* which was distributed to selected families with an invitation to subscribe to the new school. Over five thousand pounds was subscribed. "Instruction in the Public Academy in the City of Philadelphia began in 1751 with its three departments, the Latin School, the English School, and the Mathematical School". This school was most popular and grew so rapidly that in 1779 its charter was revoked and a new charter for it issued under which the University of Pennsylvania has developed. From this school the academy movement in Massachusetts and other states began. So Benjamin Franklin, who was never a schoolmaster, is the second great leader in secondary education.

We cannot go into the southern group of colonies or states without a pause for the work of Thomas Jefferson, "father of the University of Virginia" as the epitaph on his monument, written by himself, has it. As early as 1739 he introduced into the Assembly of Virginia a measure calling for a set school system to meet the needs of all children. It proposed dividing the states into hundreds with a schoolhouse in each, supported by the people. Secondary education was provided for in an organization of three or more counties which were to coöperate. At the head of the system was to be the university. This measure did not pass the legislature but Jefferson spent his last years working for its passage.

We are now well into the academy period and there are some teachers in its early days that may not be overlooked. The second principal at Phillips Exeter Academy was Dr. Benjamin Abbot. He was immediately called to Phillips Exeter upon graduation from Harvard. Virtually as head from that time, he was actually elected principal in 1790 at the then regal salary of 133 pounds, 6 shillings and 8 pence. The "science of boys" was well known to him. He was a tall man, finely proportioned, graceful in every movement and his pupils long remembered the sweet and gentle dignity of his expression. While he punished thoroughly, a culprit was restored to all his privileges when the punishment was over. The father of Lewis Cass had a conference with Abbot before sending Lewis to him. Abbot finally took the boy on trial and the experiment was entirely successful, his father remarking upon

one occasion: "If Lewis was half as afraid of the Almighty as he is of you I should never have any more trouble with him."

The third period in American secondary education may be said to begin in Boston in 1821. In that year the English Classical School opened its doors. "There was need for a new type of secondary school which should involve the newer conceptions of the aims and methods of secondary education as exemplified in the academy and at the same time fulfill the requirements of a public institution." Six years later the state of Massachusetts enacted the law of March 10, 1827 which is the real beginning of the high-school movement. With this law, and re-enforced by court decision of which the Kalamazoo Case is the most important, the high school began a century of success. Into the mess of the curriculum and the relations to the colleges the Committee of Ten found itself engaged in the 1890's.

The Committee of Ten recommended in its report not only the newer subjects to the curriculum but reduced the time given to some subjects and recognized the secondary-school subjects as properly beginning earlier in the grades. Thus the fourth period of American secondary education is said to begin with this report. The person who is here recognized as the leader of this period is Alexander James Inglis, a teacher in high school and college and the author of the outstanding book on the high school at this time. He was born of Scotch Irish stock at Middletown, Vermont, in 1879, and was educated in Wesleyan (Connecticut) University. He spent a year in Rome and then taught Latin at Horace Mann School in New York for some eight years, preparing three textbooks during this period. He did his graduate work taking his Ph. D. in 1911 and spent the next year as head master of the Belmont School in California. In 1912, he entered college work in Rutgers University and became Assistant Professor of Education at Harvard in 1914 and in 1919 Professor of Education. He died in 1924. He made several educational surveys and wrote the book on *Principles of Secondary Education*. He was instrumental in doing much of the hard work on the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. At Harvard University, as a memorial, an annual lecture is given by some outstanding leader in secondary education each year on some phase of secondary education. Thus, we close this topic, *Great Leaders of*

Secondary Education, as we opened it, with the story of a teacher who was active in his field to the day of his death.

Mrs. Lucy L. W. Wilson, Lecturer, Temple University, read her paper, entitled *Three Hundred Years of Education for Girls*.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF EDUCATION FOR GIRLS .

MRS. LUCY L. W. WILSON

Formerly Principal, South Philadelphia High School for Girls,
now lecturer, Temple University.

(An abridgement)

When this topic was proposed to me, two reasons for acceptance immediately presented themselves. One was Woody's *A History of Women's Education in the United States*; the other, the fact that in my own person I had actually experienced the last hundred and thirty years of such education.¹

Colonial Education in New England.—Early educational opportunities for girls in my revered and beloved New England were as infrequent as in the South, and very much more occasional than those in the Central Colonies. The reasons for these differences soon became clear. They were due to differences in religion, in nationality, in the traditional attitude towards women, and in geographic conditions. In New England there was an incessant demand for women's physical labor. To read the Bible daily was as much mental improvement as most women had time for, even had it been believed that women's minds were strong enough for other learning. Even in this reading, women were compelled to accept authority and were forbidden to think for themselves.

During this period any education, beyond the most elementary reading, and sometimes writing, taught in the same school, could come only through individual initiative ability, determination, and effort. That there were Abigail Smiths, Margaret Winthrops, Mercy Warrens, Anne Bradstreets,

¹My personal contact with education before my birth was due to the fact that in spite of a difference of fifty years in our ages, I had been intimate with my father's four sisters, all of whom had been graduated from the Troy Female Seminary. I had been intimate, too, with a fine and intellectual great-aunt, who had attended school in Miss Pierce's famous kitchen, the birthplace of Litchfield Academy. I had been intimate also with my mother, who, though born and brought up in Vermont, had been sent to Bishop Doane's famous school, St. Mary's Hall, Burlington, New Jersey, at the age of thirteen. She had been graduated in four years, but had returned for a post-graduate fifth year. In addition to these contacts with New England and the Central States, my first year of teaching was in a seminary in the South.

Phyllis Wheatleys, and others, is remarkable. They owed little or nothing to formal education; everything to themselves.

And yet higher education in the United States began in New England.

In the determined struggle to secure higher education for the boys, little opportunity was permitted to the girls. The dame schools which they were allowed to attend were organized primarily to prepare small boys for grammar or town schools. Girls were not admitted to the town schools for more than a hundred years—and even then, only in the smaller towns, for a few hours daily, for short terms, when boys were few in number, or else were dismissed (on the Thursday half holiday, for example). And in these schools girls were permitted to study only elementary English, seldom a language, and never Latin.

The Society of Friends, believing that all humans possessed the inner light, had already accepted the concept of complete equality between races, between social groups, between the sexes. To no one, said they, man or woman, educated or uneducated, could be denied the privilege of speaking. Nevertheless, they believed in education, and early established schools for boys and girls, stressing not only moral, religious, and intellectual teaching, but also practical training, for the girls as well as for the boys, including apprenticeship.

The most significant schools for girls in the central colonies were those established by the Moravians. One of these began in Germantown in 1742. Seven years later it was transferred to Bethlehem. At first it was a boarding school for Moravian girls only, but finally, in 1785, it was thrown open to girls of all denominations. It is now the Moravian College for Women, proud of its development from a religious private school to the first secondary school exclusively for girls in what is now the United States.

Private schools for girls were more numerous in the Central Colonies than in New England because of easier living conditions. They were organized by "adventuring" masters and mistresses, who taught, of course, whatever their patrons wanted. These adventure schools were the forerunners of the academies and seminaries that later became dominant. These

schools supplemented the instructions given in the elementary schools organized by the Dutch, the Germans and the Swedes that offered little more than reading, writing, and religion.

In the South, except for apprentice and charity schools, there was practically no education for the poorer boys or girls. But in the families of the wealthy, the tutor often instructed the girls as well as the boys. The women in well-to-do English families brought with them the habits of voluminous letter writing and journalizing,—an important factor in their further education, whether they lived in the South, in the Central Colonies, or in New England.

The Great Awakening: Academies and Seminaries.—And now the dawn of the new day began to break. The right of a girl to higher education had been recognized. An opportunity to attain it—if she could pay for it—was offered in many schools. Benjamin Rush, DeWitt Clinton, Emma Willard, Mrs. Phelps, Catharine Beecher, and many other eminent men and women were eloquently preaching this new concept of education for women. All over the United States academies and seminaries were being established, for girls alone and for boys and girls together. The Female Academy of Philadelphia, influenced largely by the Moravian School in Bethlehem, was the first to be incorporated (1792).

The seminary as an institution for secondary education dominated the nineteenth century. There were as many such institutions in the West as in the East. This was initially due to the adventurous energy, enthusiasm and ability of that most gallant lady, Catharine Beecher. She felt that the West, too, must be saved, that education was the open road to salvation, and that the role of women in it was even more important than that of men.

In the South, the story of the establishment of schools for girls, seminaries, and academies, differs little from that of the North, except that they persisted there longer than in the North, because of the earlier foothold in the North of public schools.

Briefly,—before the Civil War, female seminaries, academies, or collegiate institutes were to be found in almost every state in the union. They declined in number after the War, but this decline did not mean a decline in educational

opportunities for women. Public high schools, normal schools, and colleges more than took up the slack.

The greatest seminaries, for example, Troy, Salem, Hartford, Ipswich, Mount Holyoke, Milwaukee, were brave pioneers, demanding financial backing and endowment, adequate buildings and equipment, democratic faculty organization, and a curriculum broad and deep. Out of their achievements evolved the women's colleges.

Academies were first organized exclusively for boys. The idea came from Benjamin Franklin's proposals *Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, a deservedly famous and very remarkable document, proposing a school "which should promote the welfare of its students when they should go forth to the duties of an active life." It provided for a well equipped building, "a garden, orchard, and a field or two" (for sports, the study of husbandry and science), and a library. Above all, Franklin advocated, with detailed provisions, an extraordinarily wise and modern curriculum. Two years later, in 1751, with money pledges from the city and its citizens amounting to nearly \$25,000, the Philadelphia Public Academy opened its three schools, a Latin School, an English School, and a Mathematics School. The Academy eventually developed into the University of Pennsylvania.

Later the Phillips family established Andover ("to learn them [the pupils] the great end and real business of living") and Exeter. Many other academies were opened in rapid succession. By the middle of the nineteenth century there were about six thousand of various kinds scattered all over the United States. The unsurmountable difficulty was to find enough teachers capable of carrying out Franklin's magnificent plan. Before his death, he himself protested against the treatment accorded the English School. This and other schools reverted to much of the faulty curriculum and methods of the earlier Latin Schools. Briggs' comment is important and vital, particularly in view of present conditions in secondary education. He says, "But the failure to carry out the revolutionary, though sound, program as presented by Franklin, is the first great tragedy of secondary education in America. Unfortunately, it is not the last. The failure resulted naturally, of course, because there were no provisions for *developing detailed plans of procedure, for converting to the new philosophy*

teachers who were saturated with tradition, and for guiding them by supervision to appropriate practices." (Italics mine).

Democracy Knocks: The Public High School.—The first public high school for girls was established in Worcester in 1824, three years after the opening of the English Classical School for boys. It was followed two years later by a girls' high school in New York. In the same year Boston opened a girls' high school on the monitorial or mutual instruction plan. It was closed two years afterwards, however, because of its enormous popularity! It was not possible to accommodate nearly all who applied for admission, and, in spite of the economy of the monitorial system, there was not public money enough to provide the larger and better accommodations needed.

Six years after the opening of the English High School, Massachusetts passed a law making public high schools mandatory. Other states followed with similar laws, tardily, sometimes with reluctance, and often without the compulsory clause. Eventually, however, the public high school became an integral part of our tax supported public school system. There are now about 25,000 such institutions scattered throughout the United States. Of them we may well be proud. Not only are they indigenous, but they are our own unique contribution towards the evolution of genuinely democratic education.

The objectives of the first and subsequent high schools for girls have been epitomized by Woody as follows: "first, an extension of the range of girls' education supported by the public; second, increased social usefulness on the part of women; third, specific preparation for teaching in the lower schools." Preparation for college, an important objective in boys' high schools, dating all the way back to 1635, did not function in the schools for girls until many years had elapsed, for the quite obvious reason that no colleges were ready to receive them. Emma Willard, indeed, did not favor a college education for women. She wished instead to reform the seminary by emphasizing substantial subjects rather than accomplishments. Catharine Beecher, on the contrary, urged another institution, to be organized on the same lines as the colleges for men.

The idea of coeducation was developing slowly. In 1837 four girls were admitted to Oberlin. Antioch, however, was not opened until 1852. Elmira, the first real College for Women, (if we except the Georgia Female College and that of Mary Sharp in Tennessee), was established in 1855, followed ten years later by Vassar, and then, after another ten years' interval, by the almost contemporaneous Smith and Wellesley. In the meantime, Michigan, Wisconsin and other state universities were opened to women as well as to men. Cornell followed the movement toward coeducation initiated by Oberlin.

Girls are now successfully prepared for college in the many coeducational high schools as well as in the few remaining high schools for girls. Of these latter there are now only about a hundred, four-tenths of one per cent of the whole number!

The long fight is won. There is now equality of educational opportunity all along the line, both for girls and women,—in this country, at least. The battle must be waged along a new front. It must be fought for *all* youth, with the high school as the principal battlefield.

Again the words of Catharine Beecher ring out: "Salvation must come chiefly through education, and woman's part in education is more important than that of man."

The light thrown on the development of education of women makes us consider that there may be some truth in the last word of *What Every Woman Almost Knows*, by Mrs. Norris: "Give us another hundred years, gentlemen. Give us a little more time to clean up the house and fill the lamps. Help us to outlaw war, prostitution, drunkenness, illness, poverty, dirt, crime, slums. You'll see!"

THE SECOND GENERAL SESSION

At 2:40 P. M. the President of the Department, Mr. Charles F. Allen, called the session to order and at once introduced President L. W. Reese of the National Association of High-School Supervisors and Directors, with which organization a joint program for the afternoon had been planned. Then the President presented Mr. Willard N. Van Slyck, Principal of High School, Topeka, who introduced William McAndrew, who spoke without manuscript to the subject, *The Unique Characteristics of Secondary Education*.

THE UNIQUE CHARACTER OF SECONDARY EDUCATION TO-DAY

WILLIAM MCANDREW,
Editorial Department, *School and Society*,
East Setauket, N. Y.

Ladies and Gentlemen:

When in the course of human events a program committee selects the title but leaves the content of an address to the choice of the speaker, the result must surprise many.

Some participants in this program would select as the unique character of American high-school education to-day its democratic urge upon all youth, bright or stupid, to partake of the offerings. This is unique as compared with the persisting policy of most European countries to select the ablest for the high-school grade and to create an intellectual elite. Our present service is unique as compared with the usage common in the earlier days of the older men here. The high school used to insist that its business was to train leaders. It assumed the right to select those whom it considered possessing the traits which could be developed into guidance of other men. But it had no classes for teaching leadership. It had entrance examinations sifting out of the crowds of children those whom it considered, because of higher standing in elementary studies, likely to become leaders by pursuing high-school subjects. The parents of such youths as were excluded by this policy resisted paying taxes for the privilege of having their own children led by the arbitrarily selected offspring of other men. Leonard Koos, indefatigable tabulator of high-school objectives, had, twenty-five years ago, to put leadership at the top of the column of things which the high-school men said they intended their graduates to obtain. In his later lists, made up again from the expressed purposes of those directing secondary education, Dr. Koos had to put leadership well down at the bottom of the record. High-school education to-day is unique in that it is adjusting itself to serve all children from about eleven years of age and upwards. It is less selective, less aristocratic, more universal, here, than elsewhere or than it was.

It is unique in that it is willing, now, to teach any respectable subject from Hebrew to hog-raising.

If paper and pencil should be passed to you for recording what you regard as the unique character of education to-day, the number and variety of purposes would be amazing and commendable. Absence of a national high-school program, freedom given to local school districts by most of the states, have made secondary education in America unique in what some commentators call an educational chaos and others a facile adaptation to a diversity of needs.

Unable, because of temporal and intellectual limitations to cover the many unquities of high-school service, your servant will discuss only one: the amazing failure of it to do that for which it was set up.

By the year 1786 it was the conviction of thinking Americans that the experiment agreed to on the fourth of July, 1776, was a failure. A revolution costing much blood and treasure had broken the bonds attaching us to a monarchical rule. A decent respect for the opinion of mankind had led us to declare that we were setting up a new government founded on the proposition that men are by nature equally entitled to certain rights including life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness and the duty of changing government when it fails to insure these rights. The government we formed was fizzling out. Massachusetts and New Hampshire had indulged in armed rebellions. New York and Connecticut had threatened bloodshed in the settlement of their state boundary. Georgia and South Carolina were ready to shoot each other for navigation rights in the Savannah River. It looked as though Pennsylvania would send troops into the Wyoming Valley to take it away from Connecticut. Spunky Rhode Island was exciting Massachusetts by charging that sister commonwealth higher duties on goods of the Bay State than Little Rhody placed on imports from England. New Jersey was hating New York harder and harder because of the Empire State's tariff regulations. Thirteen jealous commonwealths without tranquility had failed to establish a nation. There was no union. Great masses of the people believed that things were run in the interests of the rich. Lawyers and bankers were bitterly hated. The failure to work for a common cause, a defect that had nearly wrecked the Revolution by the desertion of whole regiments, had made the land an easy prey to any Spanish, French, or British conqueror who might have attacked in succession one or more of

these thirteen states. There was a widespread fear of dictatorship backed by ex-soldiers clamoring for money. The assemblage that met in Philadelphia on the fourteenth of May, 1787, was of men who had intimate knowledge of the needs of their fellow citizens. Manfully they set to work to build a nation. After four months of discussion, dispute, and compromise, America had another declaration of principles.

We know that in reaching the decision of July 4, 1776, there was disagreement and compromise on details of the reason for rejecting British rule. As to the general principles of government subscribed to: equal rights, consent of the governed, duty to change government when it fails to meet the people's needs, I can find no record of dispute. The Congress espoused the statement of aims unanimously. In reaching the decision of Sept. 17, 1787, the frame of government was the subject of bitter disagreement, not without disgusted and angry withdrawal from the convention by eminent members. But here, also, the purposes of the nation: more perfect union, justice, tranquility, defence, general welfare, and that liberty which insures blessings, were formulated by a committee and agreed to by the entire convention without a question.

Hearing, as we do now, so much incitement to worship the constitution as if it were a sacred table handed down by the Almighty, it is startling to read in the annals of its own time the frank confessions of its framers that it was only an experiment. Washington's expressed opinion was one of doubt. Hamilton repudiated the whole plan. Jefferson insisted that there should be a new one every seven years. Important organizations now urge the schools to teach it as an eternal unchanging law like those of the Modes and Persians.

In view of the fact that the great purposes of American government were unanimously approved by the founders while the machinery was questioned by many undoubted patriots, it is a unique character of American secondary education that it has devoted more attention to teaching the *form* of government than to enquiring how the *spirit* of it: equality, union, justice, domestic peace, defence against enemies of the people, general welfare, and the blessings of liberty can be made secure.

Education was in the picture early in the second revolution that resulted without bloodshed in the adoption of the

Constitution: a confirmation of the rights of citizens as outlined in the Declaration, a restatement of obligation as expressed in the preamble of the constitution and its first ten amendments.

In 1913 Mr. Henry R. Evans collected and the Federal Bureau of Education printed "Expressions on Education by American Statesmen." In 1926 Allen Oscar Hansen completed and the Macmillan Company published "Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century." It is a study of the old books and pamphlets of statesmen and publicists bearing on the ways by which the principles of representative democracy shall be secured. The gist of these proposals by hundreds of respected Americans recorded in both books is that the education accepted before 1776 must be so changed as to make civic efficiency its preponderating aim. A concentrated expression of this accepted belief is in Washington's farewell address to the people of the United States. Irving shows that Hamilton wrote the passage. Washington adopted it as his own. Often have you heard it. Maybe you have swallowed it whole without analysis. Here it is again:

"In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. Promote, therefore, as an object of primary importance institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge."

I ask you what is the whole meaning of this pronouncement?

What does the *general* diffusion of knowledge mean? In Washington's often quoted letter to Governor Brooke of Virginia he says "*universal* education ought to be adopted in the United States."

What knowledge does Washington say should be generally, that is, universally diffused? Knowledge that enlightens public opinion.

On what? On those things in which public opinion is recognized as a force because of the structure of government. Was our government conceived as intended to get its power from public opinion? All the founders so held. Our structure of government is that of representatives selected to carry out public opinion.

Is this a fair translation of Washington: we should have universal education devoted to politics, politics meaning government? I see no other interpretation.

How necessary is it? "Of primary importance." Not the army, the navy, the courts, the post office, the roads, the rivers, the harbors rank higher. This, surely, is an American idea. No other head of a nation had ever so reasoned. The hundreds of statesmen whose views are given by Evans and Hansen in the books I mentioned agree in this that public education in this republic must be devoted to the diffusion of knowledge of politics. So commonly accepted was this as the American purpose that the first United-States law making any mention of education, the Ordinance of 1787, declaring that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged," gives the reason: "for good government and the happiness of mankind."

All this might be nothing more than a recital of interesting fact and opinion of a century and a half ago were it not that the proponents of this revolutionary doctrine of education pushed their ideas into provisions that committed the schools to this revolutionary policy and to corresponding revolutionary action.

The States, one after another, passed laws requiring everybody, whether or not he had any children, to pay taxes for the support of public schools. Opponents of this surprising proposal to make the Browns pay for the education of Jones' children urged that this would be taxation without representation. The answer to that weighty objection was the promise that the schools were not to be run for the benefit of the children but for a more perfect union, the promotion of justice, domestic tranquility, defence from outward and inward enemies, general, not children's welfare, and the blessings of liberty. That is, to train citizens in politics.

This, in short, is the history of the American Idea of public education. The United States was the first nation in the world, so far as I can find out, to be founded on a declaration of principles. It was the first to select education as the means of getting those principles to function. It was the first to make the education of all the people an obligatory payment for people without children. It was the first to make attendance on school compulsory.

All this is old stuff to you. Review of it is for the purpose of reminding us what a startlingly unique character of American high school education to-day lies in the failure of high schools to perform the main duty for which they were set up. High-school failure to justify the taxing of persons who for themselves or for their children get no benefit from these costly institutions is a unique fact.

Why do I select high schools? Why say so little of other grades? Because it is pretty generally realized that the high-school age is the time when youth are well into the intelligence capable of understanding the civic ideals.

So far as I can find from the study of courses and the recorded results, the high-school teaching of more perfect union, means of better distribution of justice, promotion of tranquility instead of endurance of bloody civil strife, defence against public enemies who squander or steal the people's money, devotion to general welfare instead of to selfishness, protection of freedom of thought and speech, duty of opposing government which fails to insure the people's rights has been side-stepped in every school I know of. So far from an enlightened public opinion as a force, a power, too many competent judges say we have a citizenry of political morons. New York City, Philadelphia, Chicago, all the American municipalities pay enormous sums for high schools which sedulously eschew all study of local misgovernment in their own localities. Cincinnati citizens organize to clean up their government. Asked how many high-school teachers came into the campaign, the school managers do not know of any. The Seaburys, the Steffenses, the Bakers, who uncover the corruption of municipal government declare that it is in your town, county, and village also. What high-school teacher knows whether this is true or not? Set up and forever encouraged to secure good government, what high-school faculty knows whether the government closest to it is good or bad? In three hundred years of high-school life in America who can show that it has not been three hundred years of puttering? The first half of the period was, of course, a time when the dominating theory of life was the division of mankind into an upper and a lower class. For the fortunate let there be schools of polite learning; for the others, enough education to read the scriptures and compute with shillings and pence. In the mid-

dle of these three hundred years there came to the nation outside of school the great overturn of political thought and the contemporary call for an education devoted to coöperative extension of the rights of man. Said Noah Webster, "the school-master thinks the Revolution is over. For him it has not yet begun."

Who am I to rake up these old fault-findings against high-school education? A miserable sinner, a high-school teacher of Latin and Greek who believed and preached the comfortable doctrine that if I drilled boys and girls on the syntax of a dead language and on the proof of facts about triangles and with the manipulation of x and y , their minds would be sharpened to such an edge that as to cut through any problem. What mentors did I choose to guide my service? The wonderful men who had thought out a scheme of education for maintaining and strengthening a republic. Not I. The lamp to my path was a smudge fed by elderly fuddy-duddies who devised the entrance requirements to their colleges isolated from needed service to the country. By historic fact, by logical theory, by the source of my wages I was obligated to teach a better union, justice, peace within our borders, defence from enemies within as well as without, general (not my pupils') welfare, and liberty. Instead I thought myself consecrated to a pre-revolutionary, aristocratic, isolated concept of education, to wit: scholarship. What is it? Scholarship. It bakes no bread. It feeds no millions out of work. It may be used to keep youth busy, to delight old age, to ornament prosperity, to comfort adversity, a pleasure at home, no hindrance abroad, companionship by night, and in travel and in the country. Scholarship! It must be forever encouraged for the happiness of mankind. Did not our first mention of education in any nation-wide law say education should forever be encouraged for the happiness of mankind? It is there in the record. But it comes second, not first. "Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged for *good government* and the happiness of mankind." With this mandate before us for the second half of our existence in America we of the high schools have put stress on the second and less vital part of the commandment. With our scholarship and our innumerable high-school dances, dramatics, athletics, picnics, and amusements we have not found much time for organizations to study and

improve the government of our own town, its economy, its honesty, its efficiency. In our child-centered school we seem to be better organized to cultivate selfishness than to serve the general welfare of the community that is paying the bills. All of the records of investigations I have seen report an appalling absence of recognition of community responsibility by high-school pupils, teachers, and principals.

This is no reprimand for them. I have brought no tone of blame into this recital. It is an account of what those who proposed education as a public charge said it should do and what they promised in order to get the tax laws passed. We are enquiring as to the workout of that American idea and the fulfillment of that promise.

There is a significant thing about this whole business that must not be overlooked even though my narrative is near your tiring point. The proponents of American public education expected and declared that the people, not the teachers, rule. The people were to make the Educational Revolution and maintain the schools for general welfare and good government; that is for politics. It is the people, through their representatives, the school boards, that have allowed education to remain more an organization for delight and for promotion of selfish desire of each beneficiary to better himself than it has been encouraged for justice, general welfare, and the original propositions. Instead of insisting that the schools teach politics as they were set up to do, school boards in numerous cases have forbidden the teaching of politics. I do not know of a single case in which a school board has risen to its plain American duty and reprimanded or discharged a teacher for failure to teach politics. On the contrary, everyone knows of instances in which the amazingly absurd spectacle has been seen of a teacher being reprimanded or discharged for doing that which Washington, Jefferson, and all those responsible for making education a public charge said the teacher should do.

The way out of this educational mess is organization. School boards have not led education along the intelligently laid-out American road. School boards are not going to do it. High-school people and school superintendents are growing increasingly conscious of the absurdity and hypocrisy of taking the money of a republic to perpetuate an education

which retains so much as ours does of the monarchy from which it sprang. Organization to show the people why education should perform its original political function, organization to remake the courses of study so as to give politics the preponderant place, organization to protect teachers put in jeopardy by unenlightened school boards will hasten the educational revolution the founding fathers planned.

To say that education has not realized the expectations of the statesmen who made it a public charge is merely to speak simple truth. To so direct American education that it shall make the promise of its original promoters its plainly preponderating purpose is, as I see it, the only course open to honest men and women who accept as teachers the money taken from the whole population taxed not as parents but as citizens. These people were lured into consenting to tax supported high school by assurance that this scheme would insure good government. To deny that education can do this seems to me a retreat into cowardice, indolence, and despair.

To march courageously into the campaign of realizing the hopes of the wonderful men who originated the American idea looks like an adventure with all the thrills of glory. Oh, my beloved, What a chance! What a chance!

The program was interrupted to call on Principal M. R. McDaniel, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois, President of the National Honor Society. Mr. McDaniel made a brief statement of the status and growth of the National Honor Society. The following ballot was then passed on.

BALLOT

COUNCIL MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Vote for only four. Mark out all others.

- ☐ W. L. SPENCER
Supervisor of Secondary Education, Alabama
- ☐ JOSEPH ROEMER
Director of Demonstration School,
Peabody School for Teachers, Nashville

- ☐ LOUIS E. PLUMMER*
Principal, Union High School and
Junior College, Fullerton, California
- ☐ RODNEY D. MOSIER
Principal Senior High School, Uniontown, Pa.
- ☐ H. V. KEPNER*
Principal West High School, Denver, Colorado
- ☐ H. B. JOHNSON
Principal, Senior High School, Eugene, Oregon
- ☐ FLOYD E. HARSHMAN
Principal, High School, Nutley, N. J.
- ☐ V. M. HARDIN
Principal, Reed Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri
- ☐ OSCAR GRANGER
Principal, Haverford Township High School,
Upper Darby, Pa.
- ☐ ROBERT BURNS
Principal, High School, Cliffside Park, N. J.
- ☐ R. L. BUTTERFIELD
Principal, Benjamin Franklin High School, Rochester, N. Y.
- ☐ L. W. BROOKS*
Principal, Wichita High School North, Wichita, Kansas

*Present members of Council.

President Allen and Mr. McAndrew each told his best story, the ballots were collected, and the presiding officer, Mr. Van Slyck, introduced Head Master Burton P. Fowler, Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware, who read his paper, *What the Private Secondary Schools Are Contributing to American Life To-Day.*

WHAT THE PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS ARE CONTRIBUTING TO AMERICAN LIFE TO-DAY

BURTON P. FOWLER

Head Master, Tower Hill School
Wilmington, Delaware

Uncertain as the future of the private secondary school may be, its past is one of glorious achievement; its present is significant.

Although we live in a day of militant democracy, there is wide disagreement as to the need or effectiveness of private education. During the first two hundred years of American beginnings, there was no such disagreement. From the time of the Boston Latin School exactly three hundred years ago to the close of the Civil War period when the academies reached their climax, the private school played the leading rôle in the educational drama. As recently as 1890, nearly one-third of all the pupils in secondary school were enrolled in private institutions; and even in 1900 the proportion was about one-quarter.

While the revolutionary changes of the present century have reduced this percentage of pupils enrolled in private secondary schools to less than ten per cent and have profoundly altered the functions of the private school, the fact remains that the number of private secondary schools has actually increased from 1632 in 1890 to 2760 in 1930.

It is an interesting fact that despite the amazing increase in high-school enrolment since 1900, the American high school still sails on an uncharted sea. It is without compass or goal. This is no reflection on the public high school, since no country has ever before undertaken the education of its entire adolescent population. Nevertheless, no adequate statement of objectives for secondary education has yet appeared; its curriculum is still a patchwork of tradition and innovation; high-school teachers are as a group without suitable professional training; and high-school pupils are for the most part without valid, driving purposes.

These deficiencies are not cited as criticism; they are probably the inevitable result of the heterogeneity of a rapidly-mounting high-school population that already comprises over one-half of the adolescents of high-school age.

Most private secondary schools, it is true, are equally or even more deficient. In equipment and teaching staff they frequently fall far below our best public high schools. A significant proportion, however, have in the past and are to-day concentrating on special functions with a degree of energy and vitality not found in any but a handful of our best high schools. These special functions may be described in a word as religious, college preparatory, and experimental.

I am not endeavoring to defend private schools, as such, but rather to justify their *status quo*. Every good American should look forward to the time when the support of public education, both by money and public opinion, will permit the public high school to serve the highest and most varied needs of the whole community. Every good American should subscribe to that historic statement by John Dewey: "What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all its children."

This means that no private school can justify its existence by furnishing to a limited few an opportunity which may be the duty of the State to provide to all. If small classes are desirable in a private school, they are equally desirable in a public school. If a country day school is one solution to the problem of the artificiality of city life, then public high schools should be located in the country. If some pupils benefit by the life of a boarding school, then such an opportunity should not be limited to the well-to-do. If the graduates of some of the private preparatory schools find readier access to first class eastern colleges, then as good preparation should be available in the public institution.

If a considerable proportion of parents believe that there can be no adequate, character-building curriculum without regard for religion, then the public school must give due consideration to this belief.

No school in America worthy of the name should justify its existence on the grounds of exclusiveness or special privi-

lege. Unfortunately such justification, if one is to believe the advertisements of some private schools, is not uncommon.

Democracy in action, however, is not and never will be Utopian. Its very imperfections are the badge of its virtues. If democratic leadership were expert, the mass of citizens would no longer need to think. Its characteristic method of muddling through is the very means by which the citizen grows and participates. As Fisher Ames, the fiery young senator from Massachusetts, said over a hundred years ago in contrasting a democracy with a monarchy, "A monarchy is like a beautiful full-rigged ship that sails proudly out of the harbor. All goes well until it strikes a rock and goes to the bottom. Democracy, on the other hand, is like a raft. It never goes very fast, nor very far, nor does it sink, but, damn it, your feet are always in the water."

Judging by the tragic retrenchment in secondary education during the past four years, it looks as if the American high school might suffer not only from "wet feet" but "pneumonia" for some time to come.

In the interim, then, between the realistic problems of the present and the final fulfillment of the American Dream, it would seem that the private school will continue to play a minor but significant rôle, a rôle which I think should not be regarded as competitive but supplementary to and coöperative with its public school neighbor.

The Supreme Court has, as you all know, recognized the fundamental right of the private school to exist in a democracy by its famous ruling on the Oregon law of 1922, which it unanimously declared to be unconstitutional.

"We think it entirely plain that the Act of 1922 unreasonably interferes with the liberty of parents and guardians to direct the upbringing and education of children under their control. As often heretofore pointed out, rights guaranteed by the Constitution may not be abridged by legislation which has no reasonable relation to some purpose within the competency of the State. The fundamental theory of liberty upon which all governments in this Union repose excludes any general power of the State to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only. The child is not the mere creature of the State; those who nurture

him and direct his destiny have the right, coupled with the high duty, to recognize and prepare him for additional obligations."

But the right to exist does not alone justify existence. The question is not, has the private school a right to exist, but can it make any characteristic contribution to democracy which gives it a valid place in the American educational scheme.

The distinctive contribution which the private is making to American education is the product of its *freedom of action*. Whether it be the limited, controlled, and even questionable freedom of the parochial school and the preparatory school, or the experimental freedom of the progressive school, such freedom of action, be it good or bad, is more characteristic of the private school than it is of the public school, which at best must be subject to the standardizing forces of political control. I maintain that such freedom of action under the reasonable minimum of supervision which the State has a right to exercise over any and all educational institutions, is a healthy stimulus to progress. It is, in my judgment, a consideration which gives the private school not only a right to exist but probably assures it a fairly permanent place.

Let us examine the validity of each of the three distinctive contributions which have been claimed for the private school: the religious, the preparatory, and the experimental. Like all educational aims, these three are frequently overlapping, yet each in itself may be dominant in a given school.

FIRST: *The Religious Aim.* By the implicit restrictions of the Federal Constitution, formal religious instruction can not be given in public high schools; and it is by no means established in all communities that time can legally be taken from the regular school day for the supplementary religious instruction by the church. Yet a very considerable number of the powerful religious denominations claim as their right under a democratic government that their children's secular and religious education shall be unified and continuous; that even under the most liberal legislation the religious instruction of our young people is fragmentary and inadequate. With equal insistence the parent who is an experimentalist in religion denies the right of the public school, with its conventional religious observances, to indoctrinate his children.

Therefore, in the absence of any scientific data as to the value of religion in building character, the State can hardly deny its citizens this fundamental right of religious freedom.

SECOND: *The Preparatory Aim.* Of the three kinds of freedom which have been cited as legitimate goals of the private school this is doubtless the most transitory. There is no good reason why public high schools can not be as selective and efficient in preparing pupils to meet existing college entrance requirements as the most high-powered preparatory schools. The fact remains, however, that under existing conditions the boy who wishes to enter one of the half-dozen leading eastern colleges in this country is heavily handicapped in most of the public high schools. No further proof of this fact is needed than the large proportion of private school graduates that constitute the freshman classes in these institutions. Deploable as such a situation may be, the fact must not be minimized that most of our great private preparatory institutions from 1635 to 1935 have been conspicuously successful in college preparation. Here, from the point of view of freedom, the shoe is on the other foot. The public high school has been freer than the preparatory school from the strangle-hold of college admission requirements. The freedom of the private school has been rather that of the parent in choosing the school, than that of the school in preparing the boy. The private school of the future will, in my judgment, have to shake off its chains of college preparation if it is to survive. As Dr. Thayer of St. Mark's once said: "That school which is first to make public announcement that it does not exist for the preparation of boys for college, will be the first to lead the inevitable trend of the private school in the next half century." The preparatory school, then, represents a paradoxical kind of freedom. It is free to accept one kind of slavery!

THIRD: *The Experimental Aim.* The modern notion of experimentation in education is not of the guinea-pig variety. Few schools, fortunately, will ever have entire freedom to put its pupils in a test tube. Children have a right even to be protected from parental theories. But tremendous good has resulted in this country as in every country from the fact that groups of thoughtful parents who have become dissatisfied with the standardized curriculum of their local schools and

who have been unable to combat the forces of reaction in these schools, have been able to pool their resources and organize a school which seemed to them more adequate than local taxation could support. Such famous day schools as Francis Parker, Ethical Culture, the laboratory schools of our universities, and many other excellent country day schools have not only served to provide a high type of educational opportunity for thousands of our most promising children, but also have been beacon lights that have inspired with new vision an equal number of ambitious teachers, teachers who were not permitted the slightest deviation from the routine of their own classrooms until they could point to the successful organization and achievements of these pioneer schools. American democracy needs above everything else variety in its educational procedures, since democracy of all types of society and government is the most intrinsically experimental. Our great public schools are becoming more and more the centers of significant experimentation, and desirably so, but there will be for some time to come receding frontiers which only the more adventurous teachers and parents will dare to explore. Incidentally, it should be pointed out that some of our best public schools which have encouraged experimentation are located in such carefully restricted suburban residential districts, that they are in a very real sense hardly more democratic than our best and more liberal private schools.

To-day we are coming more and more to regard progress as synonymous with experimentation. In all fairness, however, we should not overlook the fact that in public education experimentation has never been regarded with widespread favor. Many, if not most, of the conspicuously successful innovations in the field of elementary education had their origin in the small, private, experimental school. Such wild and radical ideas as the use of projects, a more unified curriculum, individual instruction, personality adjustment, emphasis on the fine arts, creative activities, and many others were first demonstrated to be practicable in the progressive schools during the decade after the World War. Fortunately to-day the word "progressive" belongs as much to the public school as to the private school.

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These changes just referred to, however, have concerned primarily the elementary school. What shall we say of the

secondary school? Well, nothing very startling has yet happened anywhere in our high schools. There has been much moving around of the furniture, many new subjects have been added, and a considerable degree of vitality injected through extra-curriculum activities. That is just the trouble. Too much of the change that has occurred in our secondary schools has been precisely that, too extra-curriculum. We are now entering the period, I hope, of true curriculum reform. How many secondary schools are there even to-day that have gone to the root of this problem? It may be significant, all the same, to point out that in the three or four major experiments in secondary education now being conducted on a nation-wide basis private school leadership is playing a conspicuous part. The Aikin Commission on School and College Relations and the Thayer Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum are two excellent examples of a coöperative attack on this major problem by public and private school leaders. Just as in the field of higher education we do not regard, democratically speaking, private enterprise as a serious educational disadvantage, but rather as a sign of wholesome coöperative endeavor, so in the field of secondary education, great good may come from a feeling of mutual respect between worthy educational institutions striving for a common goal.

No reference has been made to such other real contributions of the private school as the relief of over-crowding in public schools. In many communities the closing of private schools would throw a heavy burden on the already over-taxed resources of the public schools. Nor has reference been made to the service that has been rendered the maladjusted or handicapped child by giving him a better chance in the smaller classes of the private school.

In conclusion, one point should be made emphatic, that regardless of any possible need for private schools which permit of comparative freedom of action in religious instruction, in college preparation or in experimentation, regardless, I say, of such desirable ends, there is no justifiable place in any American school for snobbery, be it social or intellectual. Such a condition is a menace to any safe conception of democracy. For that reason, the best private schools have recognized their obligation, and should continue to expound the idea to make possible, by liberal tuition grants, the inclusion of pupils rep-

representative of all social strata. The private school should be inclusive rather than exclusive. Furthermore, from my own experience in public high schools, I know that this problem is not solely that of the private secondary school, since special type high schools, too rigidly differentiated curricula, ability grouping, and racial prejudice can be as destructive of the democratic ideal as differences in economic status.

What is the future of the private secondary school in this country? It is wholly unpredictable. If the forces that just now seem bent on the undermining of public education succeed, it may flourish as never before. This would be a catastrophe. If, however, the American public keeps its faith in the power of education to re-vitalize and give direction to our historic democratic ideals, demanding that every individual enjoy educational opportunity according to his needs and capacities, the private school may become increasingly unnecessary.

R. D. Lindquist, Director of University School, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, read his paper, *Responsibilities of Public Secondary Education in an Age of Leisure*.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION IN OUR AGE OF LEISURE

R. D. LINDQUIST

Director of the University School, Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio

It may seem improper for a speaker to quarrel with the subject once he has accepted the responsibility for discussing it, but I find myself compelled to do just that—to question the assumption that we are living in an age of leisure and to express doubt as to whether there is any point to discussing *The Public School's Responsibility in an Age of Leisure*. There would be just as much point to discussing the schools' responsibility in an age of plenty, and most of us are pretty certain that there would be no point at all in discussing that for the very simple reason that this is not an age of plenty. It is an age of want and misery and lack of many of the essentials of life. When we use the phrase we mean, of course, that potentially this is an age of plenty, i.e., we have the productive machinery and the raw materials to create an age of plenty. But that is not saying that we have either the wisdom or the disposition to do so; hence it is only a half truth to say that we have, even potentially, an age of plenty, for certainly the lack of wisdom and of disposition are quite as important lacks as would be a shortage in raw materials or in machinery. In fact it is, if anything, more difficult to generate and direct *these human abilities and dispositions to cooperate, in the interests of the common good*, than it is to get machinery and raw materials in abundance.

And so with this topic, "An Age of Leisure." It is assumed that those who use it have reference to the fact that some men work eight hours a day where they once worked twelve, and that one man who is working can produce as much of material goods in an hour as he once did in an entire day. Such facts create idleness but not necessarily leisure.

Last week Mr. Leon Henderson, economic adviser for the government, submitted a report in which he made public the fact that whereas, in 1930—four years ago—250 men finished 100 motor blocks in a given time, 19 men can now finish 250

blocks in the same time; that a new photo-electric inspecting machine dispenses with ten to twenty human inspectors; that the labor cost of \$4.00 on a door in 1929 has been reduced to 15c; that the labor cost of \$3.00 on body framing in 1929 has dropped to 30c, hand finishing from \$3.00 to 20c; that if used full time, an automatic buffer machine in a hardware plant replaces 150 men; that one unskilled man can operate a certain measuring and inspecting device to check piston play that once required the services of three skilled men. And so it goes—150 men displaced here, three skilled men displaced there. But certainly it would be ironical and unbecoming in your presence to speak of their displacement and idleness as leisure. And to talk to these displaced men about leisure, would be as though some sardonic god were to hold up before hungry men tempting dishes and then snatch them away from their grasping reach. Certainly an organization such as ours committed to humanitarian work, to improving the conditions under which people live, can not be party to dramatizing through its tercentenary program so cruel and inhuman a joke as that which the genii "industrialism" is now playing on the human race. Would such joking amuse the 10,000,000 unemployed and their millions of dependents, the one-fourth to one-fifth of our population which is now harassed by worry as to where the next meal is coming from. Or would it divert the millions of employed whose hold on their jobs is so precarious and tenuous that fear of losing it hangs over them like a pall darkening even their idle hours. Or would it comfort and sustain the 3,000,000 boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 21 who are reported by the Federal Children's Bureau as unemployed and out of school to say to them, "Come now, you live in an age of leisure. Take your ease, relax and enjoy yourself." Most of them are probably in families already hit by unemployment. What they want most is some chance to help their families. They are worried by the fact that there is not enough to eat and that clothes are needed. Many, in desperation, have left home, unwilling to take food where there is not enough to go around. Possibly it would help them if we set up signs along the roads which they tramp, footsore, in search of food and shelter—signs reminding them of the fact that this is an age of leisure.

I hope you will pardon me if I seem bitter about this matter and that you will believe that the bitterness grows more

from a feeling of shame and helplessness than from any disposition to assess blame or to point accusingly at any one else. I hope, also, that you will pardon me if I turn from a consideration of what seems to me a *myth*—an age of leisure—to a consideration of a related but nevertheless quite a different topic, namely, *the School's Responsibility in an Age of Economic Insecurity*. I justify this change in part on the ground that if we successfully cope with our responsibility in an age of economic insecurity, we shall probably bring about an age of leisure. Be that as it may, however, the real problem is insecurity, not leisure. And concerning that problem I wish to speak briefly.

What then is the public schools' responsibility in an age of idleness, of widespread destitution, and of general economic and social insecurity? That question has been so extensively discussed and so much more ably answered than I shall be able to answer it that I cannot promise you any new lights. All I can do is to record a conviction and urge to action along lines that are already fairly well seen.

There are current several wrong answers to this question of the school's responsibility. It should be emphasized that the answers given vary with the present security of the individual or group making it, with the interest which he has in public as distinguished from private or group welfare, with the faith he has in the common man to help solve intelligently these social and economic problems.

First, may I speak of the group which believes that the school has no special responsibility in an age of insecurity. According to them its responsibility is, in every age, to teach the three R's, to transmit undefiled by reflection or analysis or criticism, the racial experience. They, of course, show their ignorance of the educative process when they assume that the racial heritage can be thus transmitted, unchanged, from generation to generation. They say, in effect, that we should not modify the educational experiences to meet changing social conditions. They would not introduce health service or dental hygiene or recreation or art or music or social science or any of the many other extensions of educational experience. These things are fads and frills; they are not properly education, to include them disperses unprofitably the energies of children, or it makes them dependent and sycophantic, or it weakens the

moral fibre of the parents by assuming responsibilities, which are properly and as they prefer to think, inherently the responsibility of the individual parent.

Representative of such a group of view is the Secretary of the Ohio Chamber of Commerce, who last week before the Senate Finance Committee opposed social security legislation on the grounds that it weakened the moral fibre of our people. Granted that he is honest and sincere in his belief and granted that he thinks he has considered all the facts in the situation, with the realism, of which he and his group boast, isn't it conceivable that he may be wrong in the assumption that cerebration underlies his conclusion?

Those who believe thus are, in the main, those for whom economic security is no longer a problem. They wish to protect that which they have. It is easy to *understand* why they thus seek to protect their cherished possessions, but why they should *justify* it, in the face of widespread misery and injustice, is quite another matter. One would have more respect for them if they charged it, to its true cause, i.e., the grasping, acquisitive, selfish drives of man and let it go at that, but when they try, sanctimoniously to justify it on moral grounds as being good for the race, and when they profess to do it in the public interest, one experiences shame that men who would be strong and masterful should stoop to such a stupid evasion. For certainly it can not be in the public interest that children and future citizens should starve or freeze or have their educational opportunities curtailed or that they should grow up in homes supported by a dole. If it is so good for the morale and so valuable in developing moral fibre, why do they not prescribe it as part of the training for their own children? Why do they not prescribe joblessness as a curative for their own moral deficiencies?

A second point of view is held, often times, and strangely enough, by the same general group that holds the first point of view. Those who hold it believe that the school's responsibility in an age of insecurity, as in every other age, is to inculcate thrift, respect for property and law, vocational skills, and health habits. They too claim to be public-spirited and social-minded. And on the surface their claim seems to have some merit. For thrift under certain conditions undoubtedly is desirable and so are health and safety; and respect for law and

order has merit providing the law is just and in the public interest, but when one notes that the Bankers Association through its Committee on Propaganda spread thrift education and saving through our school systems, that a leading life insurance company fostered health education and casualty insurance companies safety education, and that manufacturers and the United States Chamber of Commerce were the real drive behind a Federal program of Vocational Education, one questions the disinterested nature of their zeal for public welfare. Why shouldn't these pressure groups, if they really are public-spirited, concern themselves with the extension of educational experiences other than those that promise to bring a material reward to them. One could have more faith in the real magnanimity of their protestation if the manufacturers association and the chambers of commerce were equally active in promoting legislation that extended the period of education, that reopened closed schools, that guaranteed a high type of teaching personnel by providing salaries that would attract the most competent people.

Many other minority groups effect in a similar way the learning experiences which we provide in schools, and they all profess to do it in the interest of public welfare and general social security, but it is security, which, when we examine it, turns out to be security for the small group that advocates the procedure, and not security for all. And to the influence of these powerful, socially respectable defenders of private and class rights as opposed to public rights, we educators are very susceptible. Witness the returns to a questionnaire circulated recently among superintendents of schools. One question in it was this, "Would you advocate including in school books material that called into question the adequacy of our present system of laws and regulations governing economics and political activities." To this question 81% of these educators replied "No". In other words they would advocate having youth's understanding of the political and economic system it is about to help manage consist of half truths, and result in a belief that the system under which 10,000,000 are unemployed and other millions in distress is a good system and not in need of change. Can such an attitude be justified on the part of a *public servant*? When are we going to learn that we are *public servants* and that as educators it is our business to

throw light on all that concerns *public* welfare, so that the interests of that *public* may be adequately conserved. If there are minorities whose special interests cannot stand the light of day we must refuse, and by concerted effort, if necessary, to let pressure from that quarter suppress the light. May I repeat that we are public servants and not the servants of a group or class. It is passing strange that as *public* servants we should have to battle for the right to serve all. It is to be regretted that we have become so inured to serving the few that this larger responsibility, when seen in all its implications strikes us as something new and strange and fearful. But on our decision on this point hinges all else that we do as educators. Our decision as to whether our responsibility is to public welfare or to group or class welfare determines the social orientation of the school, and that in turn determines the quality of the education which children receive there. We have had a good deal of futile discussion concerning indoctrination, but the fact is that what we as administrators do in teacher selection, faculty organization, book purchase, curriculum development, equipment purchases determines the responses which children have a chance to make, and hence their education. By far the greater part of the educational experiences of children consist of unconscious adjustment to arrangement which we make. Granted the desirability of having as many of these experiences as possible in the nature of deliberate thoughtful adjustments, it still is a fact and must continue to be so that these deliberate adjustments can never make up the whole or even a very large part of the child's educative experiences. We can and do in many places press for an extension of the field of deliberate and thoughtful adjustments for we believe that therein lies the real possibility for growth. In fact, upon our success in extending the area of thoughtful pupil participation will rest whatever claim we may make to progress in education. And yet we cannot blink the fact that even under the most zealous and enlightened leadership the bulk of his educational experience will consist of adjustments—many of them unconscious to arrangements which we make and through which we largely predetermine the outcome.

Since this is true, it becomes a matter of tremendous importance whether the social orientation of the school be one of

concern for the general welfare or concern for class and group welfare. That is the touchstone by which is measured the validity of our position as public servants. Upon the decision which each man makes on this point and upon his intelligence and zeal in carrying out his decision depends the importance of his contribution to economic and social security. Taking unequivocally the position in behalf of public and general welfare seems to me to be the very heart of the school's responsibility in an age of insecurity.

It is one thing to take this position in Atlantic City and quite another thing with respect to its demands upon both courage and intelligence in our respective spheres of professional responsibility. To him who is earnest in his desire to uphold the Constitution of the United States and to help build a state with reference to the general welfare I can only suggest that he scrutinize both his civic and professional ideals and activities to see whether or not they square with the ideal of general welfare or whether they are dominated by loyalty to selfish or narrow group interests. Such a scrutiny if courageously and intelligently made by the 1,000,000 teachers in the United States would effect tremendously our social and economic security. It would effect them because it would motivate and direct our activities as citizens. Also it would effect school legislation, school buildings, curriculum, equipment, supplies, books, school organization.

Some progress has been made in our attitudes and activities in both these areas. Some of the pronouncements and actions of this convention bear tribute eloquently to that fact. We are seeing more clearly and accepting more courageously than ever before our responsibility as citizens. No longer do vested interests frighten us, at least not as much as they once did, with the demand that we keep out of politics.

In our professional activity in secondary schools, there is a growing body of evidence that we are taking as a point of departure not the ideals of a class dominated society but the needs of children.

There is an encouraging accumulation of evidence to the effect that the secondary school is getting down to business. We are beginning to recognize that adolescent boys and girls, overwhelmed with many problems incident to growing up, can

and must be helped by the school to deal more intelligently with those problems. In fact, we are becoming convinced that there is no responsibility greater than that of helping them more intelligently to direct their own lives and that whatever measure of ability and confidence we can give them to lead independent, intelligent lives constitutes the greatest contribution we can make educationally.

We recognize that children need to and want to know more about the problems incident to group life in school, home and community so that they may make intelligent adjustments. The functions of group living, such as transportation, communication, production, exchange, government impinge upon their lives and call for interpretation. We at least dare to call this interpretation along with its contemporary and historical implications social science and we teach it unblushingly in place of formal courses in ancient history and medieval history. The presentation of those courses as unrelated units was as though a dramatist undertook to interpret Hamlet and spent all his time lecturing to the audience about the beauty of the stage sets and never got around to discussing the action or to presenting the play itself. And after all it's the play that matters.

We realize that the child needs and wants to know more about himself as a psycho-biological organism and that the safest place for him to get this information is from those who specialize in understanding this organism, the physiologist and the psychologist, and we are more and more making use of them to render this service rather than permitting the child to pick up garbled information from playmates and untrained adults. We do this because we believe that actively functioning intelligence with access to pertinent facts is a surer guarantee of sanity and balance and spiritual security under the stress of biological urges than are myths and half truths and threats, and we are daring to call this search for truth, science, and to substitute it for the memorizing of classifications of flora and fauna. We have at last come to value and to use as an indispensable educational asset the perfectly natural curiosity which the child has concerning life processes. We even strive to keep alive this questioning, inquiring attitude, realizing that great scientists are great because they have been of too hardy a stock to permit school routine and regimentation

to kill their spirit of wonder and inquiry. There is evidence that science teaching in secondary schools is beginning to concern itself with the conservation of curiosity and with the development in children of skill and confidence in using laboratories and libraries and teachers in finding answers to their questions.

We are, in short, recognizing quite frankly that if children are to recreate the world and be qualified to live in it as it is recreated they must understand it, and in that frank recognition there is real hope for secondary education and for the world that is to be.

Out of this activity of educators in helping adults to understand the world and to refashion it in the interest of the wider good as well as out of their activity in helping the growing generation to understand their world and to desire to remake it there is hope indeed. We move falteringly and waveringly, it is true, but there is evidence that we are beginning to consolidate our forces and the next decade should witness substantial progress.

Dean J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, read his paper, *Forces That Are Handicapping Secondary Education To-Day*.

FORCES THAT ARE HANDICAPPING SECONDARY EDUCATION TO-DAY

J. B. EDMONSON

Dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan.

A review of recent educational literature—particularly the year-books, special studies, and investigations, as well as the pronouncements of regional and national committees—furnishes convincing evidence that numerous recommendations have been made for significant changes in secondary education. The imposing list of committees in the recent bulletin entitled *National Deliberative Committees* furnishes additional proof that leaders have concerned themselves with desirable changes in secondary education. In spite of all of this activity, when we examine the present programs of secondary education as found in senior high schools it is obvious that most of the findings and recommendations in these reports have received scant consideration and as a result have failed to modify practice except in a few scattered school systems. Because of the striking differences between the pronouncements of educational groups and the actual practices in our schools, it is most appropriate to raise questions concerning the forces that actually prevent senior high schools from making the recommended adjustments.

The well-known fact that we have two opposing forces in the field of secondary education is a further reason for reviewing the forces that are handicapping our secondary schools. One of these forces is concerned with maintaining traditions. Certain of the obstacles to change are a result of the strength and activities of the traditional group and would, from the standpoint of the friends of the traditional point of view, be considered as aids to a good cause. The other force has been concerned with producing change through the addition to the curriculum of new subjects which seem to be socially worth while, and through the adoption of new methods of instruction which seem to be better suited to the heterogeneous groups found in our classrooms. It should be clearly recognized that our senior high schools are the center of the fight between the traditionalists and the advocates of new curriculum materials and new instructional procedures. It is my belief that school

administrators and supervisors of instruction are, in general, allied with the group that favors changing from the traditional. But the obstacles to change are strong as well as numerous.

By some persons the mention of these forces will be interpreted as an effort to present the various alibis that the senior high schools might offer for failure to make adjustments and changes to comply with the recommendations of experts. But whether these are considered as alibis or as genuine handicaps it is my opinion that there are many more obstacles in the path of the change in senior high schools than are faced by any other unit in our educational system. It is commonly known that there are few forces that would prevent the elementary school from making significant changes in the curriculum, in teaching procedures, or in general organization; for the elementary school enjoys a large measure of self-direction. The junior high school has always enjoyed large freedom. It has always been looked upon as an appropriate unit for educational experiments and a spirit of experimentation has dominated the junior high schools in most areas. There is plenty of evidence to indicate that liberal arts colleges can make significant changes without loss of prestige, even when this means fundamental changes in organization, curriculum, and teaching procedures. In fact, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has gone so far as to revise the standards for the accrediting of colleges in such a way as to allow generous freedom to colleges in the matter of any type of experimentation that a college may wish to undertake.

When attention is turned to the situation of the senior high school one finds that as a result of the operation of a variety of forces, the freedom granted to other units in our educational system is not enjoyed by the senior high school. In my opinion the senior high school enjoys less independence in the control of its program than any other unit. It has been appropriately described as the "dependent child of the educational family." When any change is proposed affecting the senior high school such questions as the following are always raised: How will the colleges react to the proposed change? Will the proposed change be acceptable to the various state, regional, and national standardizing agencies? Will the pro-

posed change violate any of the numerous state laws that govern the curriculum of the senior high school? Will the proposed change arouse the opposition of the conservative element in the community? These questions are seldom raised when changes are proposed in our elementary schools, our junior high schools, or our colleges. Why is this? The answer is found in the greater freedom from obstacles to change that these various units enjoy.

The most potent force handicapping secondary education is lack of freedom to plan in terms of the basic facts on which the program of secondary education should be built. This lack of freedom is created by a variety of pressures.

In the first place the secondary schools feel the pressure of state legislatures more than other units. According to our American theory of educational organization, each state through its legislature has the responsibility for establishing and maintaining the school system. The legislature of a state, therefore, has large authority to determine the details of the curriculum. A study of the statutes of the states reveals numerous requirements affecting the curriculum of the secondary schools and requiring courses in nature study, physiology, state history, physical education, civics, and numerous other studies. No one can question the legal right of the state to demand emphasis on instruction in any subject that the state legislature believes is desirable from the standpoint of public welfare. In my opinion, however, it is not good educational policy for the state to enact specific legislation regarding instruction in any school subjects. Such regulations should be framed by the state educational authorities and made in the light of full knowledge of the problems involved. The present legislation relating to instruction in specific school subjects tends to make it very difficult for senior high schools to make needed adjustments to changing social and economic conditions.

A second source of pressure that restricts the freedom of the senior high school is the part played by the state and federal subsidies in the making of the secondary-school curriculum. A certain amount of work in agricultural, home economics, and the industrial arts has been introduced into our senior high schools, partly because of new educational demands

and partly because of a desire to secure financial aid. In some instances the regulations governing such grants of money interfere with the freedom of the professional leadership and tend to commit the school to policies which do not allow experimentation that might lead to change. It would be very interesting to know how many schools would discontinue instruction in subjects that are now aided by state and federal funds if these funds were suddenly withdrawn.

In the third place, pressure on the senior high schools is exercised by the colleges through their entrance requirements. A review of these requirements shows evidence of the enactment of protective legislation for English, foreign languages, mathematics, physics, chemistry, ancient history, and a few other academic subjects. These subjects are the so-called "most favored" ones. The college entrance requirements tend to place in an advantageous position in the curriculum of the schools those subjects that are highly valued by college faculties. Students submitting units in any of these favored fields are given more considerate treatment than students submitting units in the newer fields of work. This can be illustrated by reference to the social studies. It would appear that the college faculties interested in the social studies had made little effort to secure protective legislation for their subjects, with the result that the social studies in the senior high school do not have a recognition comparable with that now extended to mathematics, the foreign languages, and some of the sciences. The opinions of secondary-school leaders indicate that the social studies would receive increased emphasis if, in framing the curriculum, the schools felt free to disregard college entrance requirements. A similar change would doubtless occur in other fields if the pressure of college entrance requirements were removed or greatly lessened.

A fourth source of pressure that has restricted freedom is the activity of certain private agencies and societies concerned with having a particular point of view impressed on high-school students. These agencies and societies have sometimes so greatly influenced state legislatures that the legislatures have actually passed laws relating to the curriculum. Much of the legislation relative to instruction in physical education, civics, state history, and other studies may be traced to the zeal of small groups of persons who have not trusted

the teachers to determine what should be taught and have resorted instead to mandatory legislation. These organizations have sometimes sought through pressure on local school authorities or state boards to gain dominance for their point of view.

A fifth source of pressure that has prevented change in secondary education is the excessive emphasis that the standardizing agencies have placed on quantitative requirements governing such matters as credits, the length of recitation periods, the requirements for graduation, and the content of specific units. In spite of the splendid contribution of the state and regional standardizing agencies, it must be conceded that these agencies have tended to exercise a restrictive influence on senior high schools. The recent creation of a national commission to propose new criteria for the accrediting of secondary schools is a courageous admission that former standards have not been altogether helpful and have tended to handicap the senior high schools.

In all probability there are other pressures that interfere with a desirable degree of freedom for the senior high school. In view of these pressures it is not surprising to find that the teachers have very slight influence in determining the curriculum of the senior high school; the curriculum has been largely determined by a considerable number of pressure groups such as the college entrance bloc, the state subsidized bloc, the legislative bloc, the special interests bloc, and the standardization bloc. In the elementary school the principals and the teachers have a considerable voice in determining what should be taught in the interests of the children. In the junior high school the teachers and the administrators have come to have a major influence. In college the faculties are free to revise and to change the curriculum in terms of changing opinions relative to the educational needs of students. The grim determination with which college faculties will fight for freedom in instructional matters is in striking contrast to the action of these same college faculties in denying secondary-school teachers a comparable degree of freedom in the matters of instruction on the secondary-school level. If freedom is so necessary for the protection of the interests of college students, it would seem desirable that secondary-school teachers enjoy comparable discretion in dealing with their pupils. As

a matter of fact, the senior high-school teachers and administrators are reduced to the impossible condition of having been deprived of much of their freedom to plan in terms of the educational interests of pupils.

The foregoing pressures or forces that tend to restrict freedom in our senior high schools are aided by certain other obstacles to change, according to the testimony of a selected group of secondary-school leaders in the North Central territory. The testimony of this group points to eleven obstacles of serious import. These I will mention without comment in this paper because my study in which these are presented has been published in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.¹

The obstacles are as follows:

1. The fact that many secondary-school teachers are the product of colleges that do not give major attention to the training of teachers.
2. The lack of an expert jury that will blow away the chaff and reveal the grain of truth for the classroom teacher.
3. The fragmentary character of research studies dealing with learning and the lack of basic, integrated studies of the school subjects.
4. The high-school teachers' lack of training in experimentation.
5. The quantitative rather than qualitative character of the standards for high-school accrediting.
6. The lack of funds for modifications of the school program.
7. The statement of college entrance requirements in terms of certain patterns of units rather than in general measures of ability.
8. The teachers' lack of ability to apply the results of research except as it is organized by authors in the form of textbook material.
9. The failure of teacher-training institutions to introduce the results of research into the required professional courses.
10. The lack of understanding by teachers of the American philosophy of secondary education.
11. The smallness of the audience to which the results of research are made available.

¹*North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (June, 1932), 16-22.

One might be justified in concluding from a hasty examination of the foregoing obstacles that it is a hopeless task to attempt any significant changes in our secondary schools. There is some evidence to support the opinion that our senior high schools are faced with so many insurmountable obstacles to change that some new type of unit will have to be developed to replace the present senior high school if adjustment to new demands becomes imperative.

Unless certain of these obstacles can be removed, I can see very little hope that our senior high schools will prove equal to the task of providing a type of training suitable to the needs of the unselected group of adolescents who are certain to want some type of instruction above the level of the junior high school. I believe secondary-school principals should fight against the unwarranted interference of various blocs with the freedom of high schools. Unless freedom in reorganization can be secured for the senior high school I can see very little chance that the school will be able to make needed adjustments to changing educational demands. At present it is impossible for a senior high school to modify its program of work without taking account of the question of state and federal subsidies, the college entrance requirements, the legislative enactments, and the demands of strong private interests in society. One result of this situation is that we now have a program of work in our senior high school which is totally inadequate for a large fraction of our high-school population. A principal of a large school in one of our Michigan cities has assured me that 60 percent of the pupils could not with any hope of success pursue the curriculum as it is now organized, placing, as it does, major emphasis on college preparatory courses in English, mathematics, sciences, languages, ancient history, and similar older studies. It may be that the present insistence on curtailment in the school program, together with the present demand for the admission of larger numbers of pupils to our senior high schools, may force hindering groups to abandon some of the traditional points of view and practices and thus open the way for a new period in which more rapid adjustment will be made to new conditions.

For fear that this paper may have too heavy a tinge of pessimism I wish to cite trends which indicate that conditions are improving. In college entrance requirements there is a

trend toward greater flexibility and less rigidity in the matter of patterns of work. The growing realization on the part of the public that the secondary-school program must be modified in the light of new demands is also an encouraging development. The recent action of the five regional standardizing agencies in setting up a national committee to revise the requirements for accrediting secondary schools is likewise a very hopeful sign. Much should also be made of the increased determination of secondary-school leaders to develop better agreement as to the aims and objectives of secondary education. If these various encouraging trends and movements can be given adequate support, I am convinced that the more serious obstacles to change in our secondary schools will largely disappear, and the senior high school will then enjoy a freedom of action comparable to that enjoyed by other units. Until this takes place, however, the senior high school is in much the same situation as the youngest child in a large family who has a plentiful supply of older brothers and sisters, two grandmothers, and a half-dozen uncles and aunts, all of whom are greatly concerned to insure that the child is properly protected against facing its own problems and making its own decisions.

It is my opinion that the Department of Secondary-School Principals would render great service to public education if it gave its support to proposals designed to free the senior high school from the excessive outside control that has developed in recent years and thus paved the way for reorganization and reconstruction in terms of the findings and recommendations to be found in the numerous reports in the field of secondary education. How to do this should be a challenging assignment to a committee of the Department.

The chairman announced that L. W. Brooks, H. V. Kepner, Louis E. Plummer, and Joseph Roemer were elected as members of the Council of the National Honor Society.

THE THIRD GENERAL SESSION

The third session of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was a joint meeting with the Department of Superintendence in the Ballroom of the Auditorium at 8:15 P. M., Tuesday, February 26, 1935.

The program opened with chorus singing. Executive Secretary S. H. Shankland, of the Department of Superintendence, presided.

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN AMERICA

CHARLES H. JUDD
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More than one hundred graduates of Cambridge and Oxford universities were among those who settled New England before 1643, the date at which Puritan immigration practically ceased. Added to these were a number who had attended English universities but had not graduated. The total of highly educated men was perhaps 130. There were, in all, some four thousand families in New England at the time with which this tercentenary is concerned. It appears, accordingly, as the result of a simple calculation, that for every thirty families there was a university man. Not only so, but these university-trained men were for the most part pastors of churches, occupying positions of the highest influence in the communities in which they lived. There were others also in those earliest settlements who had crossed the Atlantic because of their devotion to high ideals. Rev. William Stoughton in his election-day sermon in the year 1668 described the people who had come to New England by saying: "God sifted a whole Nation that He might send choice Grain over into this Wilderness."¹

It is little wonder that such people thought of the maintenance of educational institutions as one of their first obligations. As the record states in their own reverent words:

"After God had carried us safe to New England, and wee had builded our houses, provide necessaries for our livelihood, rear'd convenient places for God's worship, and settled the civill government: One of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches, when our present ministers shall lie in the dust."²

Three hundred years have passed since the town of Boston, moved by the desire to perpetuate learning, voted on

¹John Langdon Sibley, *Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University*, I, 207. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Charles William Sever, 1873.

²*New England's First Fruits*. London, 1643. Reprinted in *Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society*, I (1792), 242.

April 13, 1635, that "our brother Philemon Pormont, shall be intreated to become scholemaster, for the teaching and nourtering of children with us."¹ That brief record is all that is today known of the movement to establish a school in 1635. The exact date on which the proposed school actually opened is uncertain. The records show that a subscription for a school was raised by certain richer inhabitants of Boston at a meeting held August 12, 1636. Other records tell of a school established by a vote of the town of Charlestown on June 3, 1636, and of a school organized in the town of Dorchester in 1639. In due time, the New England colonies dotted their sparsely settled territories with schools, not many in number but all devoted to keeping alive the traditions of education, which were among the most cherished ideals of the people.

The records are meager and obscure with regard to the content of instruction in the earliest days of the Boston school which later became the Boston Latin School. Doubtless its organization and curriculum, like those of the other schools of the same period, were patterned as closely as possible after the schools of England, where learning was at that date mainly the privilege of the upper classes, especially of the clergy. Certain it is that, when Harvard and Yale were established, they and the schools that prepared boys to enter them were classical schools.

In addition to the classical schools, the New England colonies established schools for the common people. In 1647 the General Court of Massachusetts ordered that a school of the type which afterward came to be known as the common school be maintained in every community where there were fifty householders. The order which provided for the establishment of common schools also provided for grammar schools in the larger centers of population, in communities with at least one hundred householders.

It is not the function of a sketch as brief as this must be to trace in any detail the vicissitudes through which the lower and the higher schools passed. At the celebration of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Boston Latin School held in 1885, Phillips Brooks, himself a grad-

¹*Boston Town Records, 1634-1660*, p. 5. Boston: City of Boston, 1881.

uate of the school, commented on an occurrence which took place in 1711, a little less than a century after the founding of the school. He said:

"Some innovators, restless spirits who were not satisfied to leave things as they were, had made inquiries and found that in the schools of Europe boys really learned Latin, and learned it with less of toil and misery than here. And so they sent a memorial to the town house which recounted, to use its curious words, that 'according to the methods used here very many hundreds of boys in this town, who by their parents were never designed for a more liberal education, have spent two, three, and four years or more of their early days at the Latin School, which hath proved of very little or no benefit to their after accomplishment'."¹

The division of the youthful population into those who wanted a classical education and those who, in the language of the protestants of 1711, "were never designed for a more liberal education" grew more and more pronounced during the eighteenth century. Not only in Boston but in other centers the classical curriculum encountered opposition. Practical courses in navigation, accounting, and like subjects were demanded and secured either in the schools or through private instruction. The sharper and sharper division between the American youth who wanted practical education and those who were satisfied with the classical curriculum borrowed from the Old World had a two-fold result. First, it led to the development of the academy; second, it led to the creation of an entirely new kind of school for the common people. These two series of changes must now be outlined.

The movement to provide more liberal forms of education for youth gave rise to the academies. There were a few of these institutions in the early years of the eighteenth century. In 1743, Benjamin Franklin, that leader in American thought whom a recent biographer has described as the first civilized American, formulated a plan for the organization of an educational institution of higher grade than the common school which was not to be dominated by the classical tradition."

¹Phillips Brooks, *An Oration at the Celebration of the Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Foundation of the Boston Latin School, April 23, 1885*, pp. 43-44. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1885.

Franklin was an unsparing critic of the system of higher education which existed in his day. He saw the necessity of a new type of instruction for boys interested in practical commercial and industrial pursuits.

In 1749 Franklin published a document to which he gave the title: *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pensilvania*. A passage from this document which gives an explicit account of the curriculum of the proposed liberal academy, especially with regard to its treatment of foreign languages, is as follows:

"All intended for Divinity should be taught the *Latin* and *Greek*; for Physick, the *Latin*, *Greek* and *French*; for Law, the *Latin* and *French*; Merchants, the *French*, *German*, and *Spanish*: And though all should not be compell'd to learn *Latin*, *Greek*, or the modern foreign Languages; yet none that have an ardent Desire to learn them should be refused; their *English*, Arithmetick, and other Studies absolutely necessary, being at the same Time not neglected.

"If the new *Universal History* were also read, it would give a *connected* Idea of human Affairs, so far as it goes, which should be follow'd by the best modern Histories, particularly of our Mother Country; then of these Colonies; which should be accompanied with Observations on their Rise, Encrease, Use to *Great-Britain*, Encouragements, Discouragements, &c. the Means to make them flourish, secure their Liberties, &c.

"With the History of Men, Times and Nations, should be read at proper Hours or Days, some of the best *Histories of Nature*, which would not only be delightful to Youth, and furnish them with Matter for their Letters, &c. as well as other History; but afterwards of great Use to them, whether they are Merchants, Handicrafts, or Divines; enabling the first the better to understand many Commodities, Drugs, &c. the second to improve his Trade or Handicraft by new Mixtures, Materials, &c. and the last to adorn his Discourses by beautiful Comparisons, and strengthen them by new Proofs of Divine Providence."¹

¹*Benjamin Franklin's Proposals for the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, pp. 27-29. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The William L. Clements Library, 1927.

The academy which Franklin proposed was established in 1751. It afterward became the University of Pennsylvania. The influence of Franklin's views on education was by no means limited to this single institution. During the last decades of the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth century many liberal academies were organized. Their curriculums represented a compromise between that of the Latin school and the freer program of more practical studies which Franklin described as needed by boys who were to take their places in society as men of many callings.

No account of secondary education in the United States is complete which does not give full recognition to the academies. By 1850 there were 6,085 such institutions with 12,260 teachers and 263,096 pupils. They can properly be described as people's colleges. They received the young men and women from the towns and from the open country and gave them advanced educational opportunities which the local schools did not offer. The academies were in some cases aided by the states but were in general private schools. They were often organized and supported by religious organizations. Sometimes they were endowed institutions. They commonly charged tuition. Whatever their form of organization, they represented the ambition of a democratic people to provide youth with a liberal education. Liberal education meant to the America of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries not a restricted classical education but that broader type of education which the active imagination of Franklin had pictured in his document of 1749. It was through the academies that a new definition of secondary education became familiar to the people of the United States.

Even the academies, however, were at times criticized because of their leanings toward aristocracy. In 1795, Samuel Adams, as governor of Massachusetts, issued the following warning:

"It is with satisfaction that I have observed the patriotic exertions of worthy citizens, to establish Academies in various parts of this Commonwealth. It discovers a zeal highly to be commended. But while it is acknowledged, that great advantages have been derived from these institutions, perhaps it may be justly apprehended, that multiplying them,

may have a tendency to injure the ancient and beneficial mode of Education in Town Grammar Schools. The peculiar advantage of such schools is, that the poor and the rich may derive equal benefit from them; but none excepting the more wealthy, generally speaking, can avail themselves of the benefits of the Academies. Should these institutions detach the attention and influence of the wealthy, from the generous support of town Schools, is it not to be feared that useful learning, instruction and social feelings in the early parts of life, may cease to be so equally and universally disseminated, as it has heretofore been?"¹

At this point the discussion must go back to the second series of changes referred to earlier, namely, the changes which brought forth on this continent a new kind of education for the common people. While the Latin schools were being supplemented, and in an important sense replaced, by the academies, the schools for the common people were developing in accordance with the spirit of the new civilization that was spreading westward from New England. Every community in Massachusetts of fifty householders had been ordered by the law of 1647 to organize a common school. In Massachusetts, in obedience to this law, and later in other colonies and states, in imitation of the example of Massachusetts, pioneer towns and villages organized common schools. There is one important point which must be kept clearly in mind if one is to understand the relation of these schools to American history. The common school was not like the school which is known today as the elementary school. To the common school of the early history of this country went not only little children but also young people far beyond fourteen years of age. The younger pupils commonly attended school in the summer, and the young people of the community well advanced toward their majority went to school during the winter months, when they were released from farm labor.

Many are the stories of struggle of the teachers who tried to control the young people in the common school. That school was not merely a place where the intellectual arts were cultivated; it was a place where the problems of law and order had

¹*Independent Chronicle and the Universal Advertiser*, June 4, 1795.

to be solved in such a way as to deal effectively with young people who were learning that freedom releases the individual.

The American common school developed as a clear expression of the conception which frontier communities had of free popular education. No one can understand what has happened in American education since the war between the states who does not recognize the fundamental significance of the fact that the early native American school, the common school, was a school for adolescents as well as a school for younger children.

The common school underwent a transformation in the three decades following 1840. Horace Mann of Massachusetts, Henry Barnard of Connecticut and Rhode Island, Calvin E. Stowe of Ohio, and John D. Pierce of Michigan, recognizing the shortcomings of the ungraded common school and guided by the example of the German *Volksschule*, organized the elementary school, the eight-year school with which all the members of the present generation are familiar. In so doing, these reformers reduced the common school of the United States to an institution which deals only with younger children, children of less than fourteen years of age.

For a short period, while the common school was changing into an eight-year elementary school, the academies satisfied fairly well the needs of the adolescents of the nation. As has been pointed out, the academies were for the most part tuition schools. At first, the common schools also often extracted small payments, or so-called "rates," from their patrons, but the common schools moved steadily in the direction of providing free education for all the children of the communities, that is, they became tax-supported schools. It was inevitable that sooner or later the question should be raised: Why are the young people of more than fourteen years of age to be excluded, as they were not in earlier days, from free public schools?

The fundamental conception of a common school open to all the young people of the community was not abandoned by the people of this nation when their educational leaders organized the eight-year elementary school. Nor did the privately established and privately controlled academies ultimately satisfy the ambitions of these people. The spirit which prompted

the inhabitants of this new country to establish and defend the principle of political equality also dictated that whatever education communities were able to provide for the young people should be provided in a democratic way for all. When the common school became the elementary school restricted to eight years, the American people showed their pioneering genius by creating a new kind of school, one which was not patterned after the European Latin school, one which did not accept the limitations of the academy, one which must be thought of as the direct descendant of the native American common school—the school which grew up in frontier communities and included both little children and young people beyond fourteen years of age. The high school of the United States is the unique invention of a democratic people. Even before the war between the states the restricting influence of the imported eight-year elementary school was here and there being combated by extensions upward of this school. New England towns in many cases refused to limit elementary schools to eight years and added a ninth year as a regular part of their organization. Large centers of population both in New England and in other parts of the country went further and organized union schools that carried education beyond the rudimentary level.

This tercentenary celebrates a notable date in the history of American civilization. It is fitting that there be recognition of the significance of the action of 1635. It is even more fitting that there be understanding and full recognition of the fact that, as the years have passed since 1635, there has come an extension of the ideal of general education which no Puritan could have envisaged in his most ambitious dreams of intellectual and social opportunity. The movement to establish a school in Boston did, indeed, foreshadow the development at a much later date of the high schools of the United States, but the immediate parent of the American high school is the common school, which in the pioneer communities of the New World gave to all the young people the best education that the resources of those communities could afford. American free public high schools began to be organized in the years following the war between the states in direct response to the demand of this nation for a continuation of the education of all

young people beyond fourteen years of age, the limit set by the reconstructed eight-year elementary school.

In a series of brilliant researches, the results of which are published in recent issues of the *School Review*, Burrell and Eckelberry have traced the opposition which the new free public high schools encountered in the courts and in educational discussions during the years when they were beginning to flourish, especially between 1873 and 1885.

These authors review in detail the litigations in the various states which resulted from the attempt to restrict free public education to the elementary school. They summarize this phase of their investigation as follows:

"The earliest case was begun probably in 1871, and the latest was decided in 1893. The supreme courts of seven states, principally in the Middle West, dealt with the high-school question. The Kansas court dealt with it twice and the Illinois court three times. With the exception of *Charles H. Otken v. J. S. Lamkin* (1879), every case grew out of opposition to the high school. With the partial exception of *Henry Rudison et al. v. Frances S. Post* (1875), all the decisions were favorable to the high school. If we may assume that the opinions of the courts do, in a broad way, reflect dominant public opinion, the decisions would seem to indicate that throughout this period opposition to the free public high school, while strong and active, represented the view of the minority."¹

The same authors point out that such educational leaders as Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard University, and William G. Sumner, the famous and influential teacher of sociology at Yale University, opposed the free public high school, maintaining that the obligation of the state to provide free schooling is fully met by the elementary school. They summarize this phase of their investigation as follows:

"The greater part of the discussion concerning the cost of high schools seems to have occurred between 1875 and 1880, and the effect on the laboring classes of extensive education was most seriously discussed during the ten years beginning 1876 or 1877. In both these cases the evidence agrees with

¹B. Jeannette Burrell and R. H. Eckelberry, "The High-School Question before the Courts in the Post-Civil-War Period," *School Review*, XLII (April, 1934), 265.

reasonable expectations, since the depression covered the years 1873-78, while the gathering strength of the trade unions and the opposition to them date from the late seventies. Opposition from those interested in academies and private schools and discussion of the problem of religious and moral instruction were prominent from about 1884 or 1885. This line of argument may have represented a final desperate mustering of forces by private-school and religious interests against the increasingly powerful public institution."¹

Anyone who is disturbed by present-day attacks on free public high schools should acquaint himself with the historical facts reviewed by Burrell and Eckelberry. Every single objection to these schools which is offered to-day by taxpayers' associations and by ultra-conservative critics was formulated and urged sixty years ago. In spite of all objections, there has been during the past six decades a steady upward expansion of American education. It must be evident to the discriminating student of the national spirit of the United States that the foundation of universal free public education above the elementary level is as sure and safe as the foundation of this republic.

It has been the good fortune of many of us in this assembly to have observed with our own eyes the expansion of the high schools of this country during recent decades. We have seen the pupil population of these schools expand until now it is more than 60 per cent of the total adolescent population. We have seen the curriculum grow in response to popular demands until now the meager offerings of the classical curriculum are eclipsed. We have seen the wholesome reorganization at the lower and upper levels of the high school. The new secondary schools include junior high schools in their lower grades and junior colleges in their upper grades. We have seen the buildings in which the schools of the country are housed brought into line with the commodious and hygienic buildings in which industrial and commercial concerns carry on their operations. Can anyone think of all these changes as expressions of mere caprice? One hears the suggestion made by critics of American high schools that these schools go back to the Old World

¹B. Jeannette Burrell and R. H. Eckelberry, "The Free Public High School in the Post-Civil-War Period," *School Review*, XLII (November, 1934), 674.

exclusiveness which admitted only a few to the opportunities of education above the elementary level. This suggestion is made at the very time when everywhere in Europe the struggle is on to raise the common people to a social and educational level to which before the World War they were never allowed to rise. One hears complaints about the addition of new and vital instruction, such as instruction in the social studies, in science, and in practical subjects, to the limited curriculum made up of the subjects which some persist in describing as the "good old subjects."

To all objections raised by carping and penurious critics of the secondary schools of this country, there is one brief answer, and that answer is adequate. The American people have at all times, from the earliest days down to the present, eagerly desired and eagerly provided for the young people of the land education which is not limited to any social class or to eight years of elementary schooling. Devotion to the ideal of universal free education suited to the exacting demands of modern civilization brought forth in the United States a unique type of secondary education. The history of this nation guarantees the continued expansion of the secondary schools and of the whole educational system of the United States. The spirit which led to the organization of American high schools in the period following the war between the states and following the depression of 1873 is still alive and will overcome the obstacles which confront education in these troubled times. The people of the United States are seeking a fuller understanding and use of the human and natural resources of the country. They are adding to the program of secondary education a program of popular education for adults. The educational system of the United States will end its ministrations to the individual only when the individual ceases to desire the opportunity of improvement for himself and for his offspring.

THE PHILOSOPHY WHICH MUST GUIDE SECONDARY EDUCATION TO-DAY

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The popular mind is skeptical of philosophy, conceiving it as "unintelligible answers to insoluble problems." Unfortunately too much of what is called philosophy does seem to be characterized by the definition that William James so wittily gave. But there can be no doubt that everyone, each within his own competence, should develop and consciously organize orderly, consistent, and integrated attitudes based on fundamental truths, beliefs, and ideals. This, in whatever degree perfected, is his philosophy. It is true that only a relatively few of mankind take the trouble to burrow down to all the necessary truths and to relate them to clearly defined ideals, thus developing an integrated attitude that is consistently held. It is true that fundamental principles and ideals are neither used nor demanded by the majority of those who do, and within restricting limits do acceptably, the work of the world. But it is also true that those who attempt to influence the large programs for the future must themselves have a directive philosophy.

Many of the educational workers with myopic vision have apparently felt it sufficient merely to find what the facts are. Relying on incompletely considered maxims and lacking integrated attitudes growing out of ideals, they have made a fetish of facts. "The truth is mighty" they say, but it prevails slowly, and not at all unless related to a problem. A fact or even an aggregation of facts has little or no real meaning apart from a problem of a principle. Truth can prevail only as its relations are known. "The truth shall make you free" only if one recognizes it as it affects and is affected by other truths which together indicate what should be done to achieve something that is desirable. Certainly one cannot become free without truth; but he can possess many truths unrelated to problems and uninterpreted by principles and still be utterly fettered by tradition and ignorance.

If, as Plato once said, philosophy begins in wonder, then certainly it is developed by desire. And desire should not be a

reflection of immediate personal need or of a narrowly conceived and temporarily held belief. It should grow from a clear consciousness of principles as fundamental as may be found, modified to conform to facts, basic to ideals, and so consistent with each other that together they make an integrated foundation on which may be erected a unified program of any number of harmonious parts. Any person's philosophy, therefore, is in part an expression of what he desires. Always growing, it is never grown. But at any stage it furnishes a means of making his decisions sound, if his principles are sound and his application logical, consistent, if he applies his principles uniformly, and determining of all of his attitudes and actions.

"The philosophic mind can
take no middle ground."

My philosophy holds that in a democratic civilization education is an essential function and an essential instrument of society. Formerly it was and far too often in the present it still is considered as a benevolence; whereas it is, or it should be, an assured beneficence, not to the individual only, but to the supporting society as well. When considered a benevolence, it is on a shaky foundation; when a proved benefit to the necessities of the State, it will have the same support as other essential instruments.

It may be fairly assured that society is concerned with its own interests, with its perpetuation, and with its improvement, in order that the individuals who compose it may be maximally free and happy. This desideratum is too important to be left to chance. It is too vital to the happiness of the people who compose society, to the individuals for whom society becomes coherent, for it not to be sought as consistently and as skilfully by education as can be made possible by professional foresight and ingenuity. Although there are many agencies that can and do affect the ideals and the actions of individuals, the only one that society controls is the schools. It is common sense, therefore, that society should use the schools to achieve the perpetuation of such modes of living as it has approved and to prepare youth so that in maturity they can effectively propose or understandingly evaluate what is proposed by others for the improvement of these modes of life. Not merely this, it should use the schools to make individuals as potent as

they can be for convincing others of what seems superior and of translating each proposal into appropriate action.

The basic function of education is, therefore, to make youth better disposed and better able to contribute to the betterment of society, either by participating with their maximum effectiveness in the accepted modes of life or by perceiving other and better modes, which they are active to convince their fellows are superior. The principle now being elaborated, it will be seen, is far from justifying a static society. It assumes that changes will constantly be needed and that as they are needed they should be made. But changes should first be approved by adult society and then taught to youth along with the justifying reasons. It would be the acme of folly for society to maintain schools for perpetuating and promoting its ideals and then to permit any individual teacher to use his strategic position for indoctrinating youth with ideals hostile to those approved by the majority of the supporting public.

Thus conceived, education is of such importance that society not only must support it, society must control it and insure that every youth comes under its influence. If private schools of any of the several kinds are to continue, it follows that they cannot be allowed to be wholly independent. It is essential that they be controlled at least to the extent of insuring that they likewise contribute to the perpetuation and the promotion of the interests of society as the public have decided them to be.

Because of the importance of education thus conceived, it should be compulsory for all youth not to any arbitrarily fixed age, but to the extent to which each individual is competent to profit by its offerings that he may grow in power and in desire to contribute to the betterment of society. It is inevitable that some individuals will reach the point of educational saturation before society is ready to provide them work by which they can become self-sustaining and contributory to the welfare of others. In that situation society must substitute protection for education. It is inconceivable that it should be willing for such youth to be left to selfish exploitation or to uncontrolled influences that may undo the most important previous achievements of the schools. What the best forms of such protection should be we do not as yet know with any degree of certainty.

It has been objected that the conception of education as an instrument of society to perpetuate itself and to promote its own interests unfairly restricts the individual. In a very narrow sense this may be true. Society very generally attempts to restrict any individual from acting with such selfish idiosyncrasy that he interferes with the welfare or happiness of his neighbors. It assumes that the privileges of enjoying the companionship and contributions of others carries with it obligations. If one is not willing to accept such obligations, he has the alternatives of living a solitary life, so far as that be possible, or of being made to conform in essential matters. In a large sense the objection is not at all sound, for society can profit only as the individual profits, and it is generally recognized that any individual will grow best by developing the powers derived from nature and from experience. The worth and dignity of any person are most enhanced not by attempting—vainly, as a rule—to mold him according to the ideas of tradition, but by developing him according to his own inclinations and the possibilities of nature. We are learning so rapidly to identify and to respect individual potentialities that society can soon—can even now, perhaps—share positively in the decision as to what kinds of education any individual should have or may be permitted to have. It is neither sane nor safe to leave the matter wholly to the incompletely informed and selfish judgments of parents or to the immature judgments of the youths themselves.

This principle that education provided and controlled by society should be so organized as to insure the maximum contribution to human welfare and progress has been generally accepted in theory. It has not, however, been potent, as assuredly it must be, in determining the kind of education that is given. The reason for this failure is simple. There exists no clearly formulated and generally accepted statement of the ideals and the consequent activities that are maximally good for our democratic society. It is true that there are some commonly approved principles of democracy, but they usually are expressed in slogans or maxims from which the edges of meaning have been worn by long and thoughtless use, and also there is vague and undefined agreement as to what is good. But if education is to cease being a benevolent luxury, if it is to become an assured beneficence to society, the ideals of de-

mocracy and the activities that insure their approximation must be far more definitely understood and far more practically approved by the thinking public as essential. A laissez faire education is a luxury and an expensively wasteful one. On the other hand, an education based on the ideals of democracy and assuring the perpetuation and the improvement of the kind of society that it demands is an serious business, an undertaking that must have abundant support and wise direction if democracy is to be successful.

The philosophy that should direct secondary education to-day holds also that education should be concerned with all of the complex of every individual. Hitherto it has attempted, almost exclusively, to train the mind. When it was generally believed that the mind was a sort of compound organism, the parts of which could be so exercised by the performance of difficult and disagreeable tasks that it would be effective in any situation, however novel, the challenge seemed a relatively simple one. But with new knowledge of the mind the challenge has become far more complex. Despite more than a generation now of the new psychology, there is an astonishing residuum of faith, among both the lay and the professional public, in "mental training," and continually there are still made new proposals for teaching which on analysis prove to base on the discredited belief. The fact that education of this kind if successful at all is materially effective with only a small fraction of even the minority that continue in school to adulthood singularly fails to discourage the traditionalists. Certainly we should train the mind to the maximum of possibility, but with equal certainty we should realize the limitations of all methods, salvage the best that is in them, and invent new ones that are more assuredly and more generally successful. We must abandon in practice the attempts "to train the mind" as a whole by abstractions divorced from actual realities.

Every individual consists of far more than intellect. Every part of his complex—the physical, the aesthetic, the emotional, and the moral—is important to himself and also to the society of which he is a part. Education of the physical was tardily accepted as a part of our obligation, and even yet it has not gained in the opinion of the public, in which can be included a majority of the teachers, the respect traditionally

accorded the "intellectual subjects." Education of the aesthetic, though in the field of music alone it has recently made gratifying progress, is still widely considered to be a "fad" or a "frill," both derogatory terms without the respectable sanction of accurate definition. Education of the emotions has not yet got out of the stage of theory. Though certainly of high importance, it has not been sufficiently accepted in the educational program to develop specific objectives, approved techniques, or assured results. And education for character with its subsequent improved conduct is after centuries of verbal emphasis just about where it started. As Mark Twain said about the weather, we talk a great deal about it, but nobody does anything. This citation of neglected phases of education is not for the purpose of condemnation, but rather for the purpose of indicating what must be done in the future. It is only just to state that educators are increasingly concerned with both the theory and the practice of them all. If only research would contribute to a constructive program, there is little doubt but that they would gradually become an integral part of the new curriculum.

The philosophy that should control secondary education in the future demands far better definitions than we now have—or, certainly, than we now practically and consistently use. A definition should first of all be clear, so that everyone can without mistake understand it. A consideration of many definitions that have been proposed would seem to indicate that they were formulated to impress by obfuscation rather than to convey clearly perceived thought. A good definition should also be sound in that it uses the pertinent facts of life and psychology and accords with the accepted ideals of society. It should be comprehensive, including all the complex of every individual and concerned with all of the good life. It should be adaptable, so that it will apply to every condition, old or new, to every place, and to every time. And it should be pragmatic—that is, causing the one who accepts it to do something, to do something different from ordinary practice, with assurance of a sanction which original approval of the definition carries. By these criteria many proposed definitions should be tested, and one that passes the test should be accepted or invented by every educator who has any ambition for or expectation of leadership.

A handicap under which education too generally at present labors is that many teachers do not have the habit of thinking for themselves and on the basis of approved theory of proposing novel subject-matter and methods. Too many wish to be told by some assumed "authority" exactly what to do, and other of more independent competence decide between two results of empiricism without the essential direction of an integrated philosophy. There can be no effective break with what is useless or bad in tradition and there can be no intelligent pioneering without the constant stimulus and direction by sound definitions and an integrated philosophy.

The following definition, so simple in statement as to lack the impressiveness of the language of pedagogues, is proposed as meeting all the requirements of the criteria. *The first duty of education is to teach people to do better the desirable things that they are likely to do anyway. Another duty is to reveal to them higher activities and to make them both desired and maximally possible.* This is believed to be clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, and pragmatic. Objection to this definition may be made because it requires anyone who attempts to use it to make many decisions for himself. But that is precisely one of its advantages: it furnishes freedom and insures growth through the assumption of responsibility. Decisions must be made, and it is only by attempts to make them, seeking all aid necessary, that any teacher can grow toward independence and toward leadership. It is thus that the substantial progress of education can be assured.

This definition at first seems to apply only to subject-matter. But reflection will show that it applies equally well to all elements of education. Certainly it applies to methods of learning and of teaching. There is little justification of continuing in schools methods that will seldom or never be used afterward in life. In classrooms, as a rule, one who knows the answers asks questions of those who are suspected of not knowing them. In life, on the contrary, the one who is ignorant and wants to know asks of those who are presumably informed. This illustrates how commonly used methods persisting from tradition continue to violate common sense. The definition also applies equally well to conduct. If it is practically accepted, there will be a consequent diminishing in schools of conduct requirements which are of value chiefly for

administrative convenience and fail to make the optimum contribution to the education which will determine what later free conduct will be.

Pragmatic application of this definition will, of course, be without prejudice to anything new or to anything old. There is a common attitude which holds suspect anything that comes from the past, as if the long empiricism of civilization had learned nothing of value. And there is another common attitude which holds more than suspect anything that is novel, as if the ingenuity of man could invent nothing good unknown to the past or appropriate to new conditions of the present. Both attitudes are equally unfortunate. In Flexner's fine phrase, "nothing should be unproved." What of the past is good by sound criteria should, of course, be retained, and what by the same criteria is good from all proposed in the present or future should be incorporated into the program of the education of to-day and to-morrow.

It is, or it should be obvious that application of the foregoing principles and definitions necessitates education for both vocational and avocational effectiveness. The former type has for three reasons been handicapped: (1) It is novel to the American school program, (2) It is costly, and (3) It has so far been overambitious. It is true that some forms of vocational education, notably for clerical occupations, have been offered in many schools for a long time; but it can fairly be maintained that they never gained in the popular mind the unproved prestige of the traditional academic studies. Under the pinch of economy vocational education is easily squeezed out of the program, or at least squeezed to smaller proportions. They lack popular defense in that only a minority of the adult population has consciously profited from such training. Moreover, much of vocational education attempts to furnish more than actual work in the trades demands. In their ambition to train leaders the schools have an unnecessarily large program, with the result that the majority of youth have not been taught to hew wood or to draw water better than they would ordinarily do. If the schools would ascertain what the actual demands in the trades are and provide first of all courses satisfying their primary demands, at the same time revealing higher activities and encouraging the more able to seek the training for performing them acceptably, the problem would have a sound

beginning of solution. Moreover, the handicaps previously mentioned would in large measure disappear.

Probably most of secondary education is and should be contributory to intellectual efficiency and happiness. In the past this has been generally accepted as a principle; and in the future it must be accepted with assurance of satisfying results. Many of the criticisms recently directed at secondary and at higher education emanate from people who have failed to get from history, English, foreign languages, the sciences, and mathematics anything that they have later used with any degree of frequency for producing intellectual satisfactions, on their jobs or outside them. With the increase of leisure resulting from economic changes the importance of education for avocational pleasures is generally recognized, and many proposals have been made for consequent changes in the curriculum. Unfortunately, the prevailing conception, even among educators, of leisure-time activities is that they are primarily hiking, games of various kinds, creative work that is more or less artistic, and improved association with one's fellows. These are, of course, all good, common in the lives of all people, and improvable by education. What has been unfortunately overlooked is that the most common and the most satisfying of all activities are those of the intellect. The education of the future must train youth to develop intellectual interests, in any fields whatever, that are numerous, varied, and deep, develop such interests so that they are strong enough to continue by their own strength and enthusiasm long after the formal school ceases to have any direct authority for compulsion. The possession of lively intellectual interests is the best evidence of one's having attained a liberal education. The new curriculum will consist not so much of novel subject matter as of powerful and irradiating enthusiasms which always satisfying are never satiated. Only those with such interests and enthusiasms can truly teach or should be permitted to teach.

The philosophy that will control the secondary education of the future is not greatly concerned with matters of organization and of administration. These are, of course, important, but they have and can have meaning only as they contribute to educational objectives derived from such principles as have been presented. A school is organized that it may be

administered; it is administered that it may be instructed. There is no other justification for either organization or administration. When the objectives of secondary education are clearly defined, then and only then shall we know how to determine what types of organization are best and how schools can be most efficiently administered.

In this paper nothing has been said about secondary education as an agent for bringing about a new social, political, economic, and religious order. The problem is too complex to be discussed here. But a careful consideration of the principles that have been presented will reveal all that is essential for its solution. It is for the whole adult population in a democracy to decide what sort of order is desired. When it has done that with any degree of completeness it should obviously use the schools to bring about what it has approved. If it is wise, it will at the same time have the schools reveal other types of society and of politics and of economics and of religions, all of which will be considered fairly in preparation for understanding and for contribution as adults to the betterment of what we have. If there is to be indoctrination—that is, influence tending in some one direction, a type of indoctrination that is inevitable for most youth in most problems,—it should be that which is determined by the ideals of democracy. It cannot be safely left to anyone with a license to teach who thinks he has a superior idea because in some matters he is in the minority.

The philosophy sketchily proposed is based on the assumption that education is an essential and potent instrument for preserving democratic society and for constantly providing the means of making it better. For this reason society must support education and control it in all of its forms. It must provide such differentiation as will make each and every individual maximally able and maximally disposed to contribute to society, continuing educational opportunities or protection until each youth is able to take his place in society as a self-supporting and coöperating individual. To assure this, education must be concerned with all the complex of every person, the intellectual, the physical, the aesthetic, the emotional, and the moral. It must give him the foundations of vocational efficiency and develop in him for his avocational life intellectual

interests that are numerous, varied, deep, and strong enough to provide progressive satisfactions.

Thus briefly to present the philosophy that should direct the secondary education of the future is a staggering challenge, greater even than to know what the philosophy should be. With a humility resulting from long attempts to come to conclusion I have done the best that I could in the allotted time. The presentation is incomplete, in places it is doubtless to some unnecessarily abstract and obscure, and to others it probably lacks something that they would supply. But some such basic principles are surely needed as we get ready to plan the new secondary schools that will have greater responsibilities than ever before for making the new State a better place in which to live and in which to make a living. What has been proposed may serve as the material out of which a more complete and a more adequate philosophy can be developed.

THE FINANCIAL POLICIES WHICH MUST BE
WORKED OUT FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

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Introduction.—Unanimity of opinion and practice in regard to policies for financing public secondary education is no more to be expected than unanimity of opinion in regard to the policies of the federal government in financing its relief program.

A comfortable attitude on the part of educators might be that of the kind of neutrality observed by the Irishman who said he was neutral because he didn't give a hoop who licked Germany. We, likewise, might say that if public education is financed we don't care who finances it. Unfortunately, however, we cannot escape the responsibility of helping to formulate such policies.

In the past few years a vast amount of constructive thinking has been done in this important field. Probably the crystalization of this thinking may be found in the National Survey of School Finance, sponsored jointly by the United States Office of Education and the American Council on Education and published in three volumes.¹ Through these important volumes and through the Report of the National Conference on the Financing of Education² we have been provided with studies which shed much needed light on the general problem of finance.

The topic which I have been asked to discuss deals with the financing of secondary education, and I am not sure whether this circumscription simplifies or complicates my task. The attempt to discuss the problems concerned with the financing of secondary education as distinct from the financing of elementary education, inevitably leads to certain issues of a non-financial nature on which there may still be some diversity of public opinion. These issues involve such important social questions as the following:

¹"National Survey of School Finance", U. S. Office of Education.

²Report of "Conference on Financing Education". Held under the auspices of the *Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education*.

1. Shall the admission to public high schools be restricted or shall we provide for all-comers?
2. Through what ages and (or) grades shall free public secondary schooling be provided?
3. What special and vocational education shall society provide on the secondary level?

These and many others of similar nature are large social questions which must be determined by public opinion before the full scope of our financial problems can be ascertained. Fortunately an excellent and thorough presentation of these and other issues has recently been prepared by the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

The discussion presented in the tentative report of this committee seems convincing as to the desire of the public to have all-comers accepted by the public high schools except those grossly abnormal cases for which special institutions are or should be provided. In other words, *all the children of all the people must be cared for in secondary schools as in elementary schools*. The increase of the secondary-school population by six hundred and fifty per cent between 1900 and 1930 and by a still greater rate since then, is one bit of important evidence that society has accepted the theory of universal secondary education. The economic tendencies as expressed in child labor laws and in the employment practices of big industries are now forcing the acceptance of this theory. An interesting contrast to this democratic policy is presented in studies being made by Fletcher Harper Swift, under the auspices of the University of California, of "European Policies of Financing Educational Institutions." In these studies the fact that secondary education is still for privileged classes is made very evident.

In regard to the second problem, the discussion seems equally convincing that secondary education must be considered as embracing two grades beyond the usual twelfth or senior year of the high school, and that all of those who, in the opinion of school authorities, can profit thereby shall be provided for through the fourteenth grade. While it must be recognized that only a few school systems have yet provided

free secondary education as extensive as this, the need for doing so is definitely with us.

The responsibility of society for providing vocational training both before and after employment so "that each individual may be able to procure a position and advance in it" is also established in the report of this committee, although it definitely denounces "the impossible, unnecessary, and unwise ideal of providing complete and highly specialized vocational training."

If the position taken by the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education in regard to these issues may be considered acceptable to our public, we may lay at least this much foundation for discussion of finance.

There are certain other non-financial questions which are of a less public nature, but which have a bearing directly or indirectly on the cost of secondary education if not the policies of financing it. I refer to such questions as:

1. The desirable size of high schools.
2. The desirable size of high-school classes.
3. The extent to which departmentalization shall be permitted or encouraged in high schools.
4. The preparation of teachers for secondary-school work.
5. The certification requirements for teachers.

Other factors affecting cost on which the profession has not come to any general agreement might be mentioned, but a discussion of such factors is impracticable here.

Two pertinent issues of a general public nature, coming directly under the category of finance, are the following:

1. Can the public afford to provide free universal secondary education?
2. To what extent shall the various governmental agencies accept the responsibility of supporting secondary education?

The people of the United States show great faith in and favor for public education, but their faith seems to have embraced the idea that the *virtue* of teaching is its own reward—or that Heaven will provide salaries for the teachers.

It is hard to believe that any one can face the contrast between the expenditure in the United States for tobacco,

candy, cosmetics, etc., and those for public education without realizing that we can amply provide for a much more generous program of both elementary and secondary education without making public education an unreasonable burden on society. Is it not reasonable to suppose that we can at least provide as much for public education as for luxuries and perhaps a little more? Would any good citizen maintain that to ask for one-fourth as much for public schools as we spend on automobiles is unreasonable? Even one-fourth as much for schools as for passenger automobiles would call for only a five per cent increase in school funds.

Any type of educational program the American public may desire can be easily financed. The problem is one of *making the need felt* and not of *inadequate wealth*. One of the twenty-eight monographs comprising the National Survey of Secondary Education is entitled "Interpreting the Secondary School to the Public." The ideas and plans of this bulletin need to be carried out rather completely.

The issue of "To what extent shall the various governmental agencies accept the responsibility of supporting secondary education?" has become an exceedingly live one in the past four years, although it was brought into prominence through the report of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission (13 volumes, 1923) over ten years ago, and has been treated in more than 5,000 studies as shown by the "Bibliography on Educational Finance," published in 1932 as one volume of the National Survey of School Finance.

The National Survey of School Finance has issued another volume "State Support for Public Education," which represents an extensive and intensive study of the aspect of the issue. The discussion of federal support for education has been rather clearly defined recently by the National Advisory Committee in its report, "Federal Relations to Education."

Since all three of our governmental agencies, the local school division, the state, and the federal government, are already participating in the support of secondary education (the federal government through the work in agriculture, home economics, trade, industrial and commercial education), there is no issue as to the propriety of each of these agencies *participating*, and the issue centers about the extent of this participation.

Probably no two states are similar in regard to the conditions which affect this matter. A prosperous industrial state like Massachusetts, in which the local school divisions have always carried a large share of educational costs, presents a very different problem from a state like Virginia where most of the local school divisions are rural counties with little taxable wealth other than farm land, and often farm land which is in a very depleted state of production. In Massachusetts an adequate school program seems to be possible with a relatively small amount of aid from the state treasury, whereas Virginia schools, outside of the larger cities, are absolutely dependent on state funds.

When we consider the matter of the differences between the states in regard to the per capita provision for elementary and secondary education a most startling contrast is presented, as is well known. In New Jersey, for instance, the average annual per capita cost of secondary education is \$160, whereas in Virginia it is \$45, and in Arkansas \$43. These arresting contrasts suggest the fact that some states are in much greater need of federal aid than others, and that if our national ideal of equality of opportunity is to have anything more than lip service some effort to bring the educationally weaker states nearer to the educational level of the stronger states through federal aid is quite inevitable.

The preceding discussion is merely a background for the consideration of the financial policies suggested in the title of this address. The title covers a very broad area of thought and leaves the writer in a very difficult position. Time will not permit full and complete treatment of all possible policies that should be considered in connection with the broad field of secondary education and its financial policies. It, therefore, becomes necessary to select certain broad and rather comprehensive policies and deal with them, recognizing that further consideration is necessary for detailed treatment within the broad policies being considered.

The Responsibility for Secondary Education.—Since education on the elementary and secondary levels may be safely assumed as desirable for all the children of all the people, and since it is in keeping with the democratic ideal of America that equal educational opportunity on these two levels be open

and free to all, it seems defensible to say that the responsibility for making elementary and secondary education universal and free rests upon: (1) The local communities, (2) The state government, and (3) The federal government. Therefore, the purpose of the remainder of this paper will be to indicate briefly the financial responsibility of: (1) The local community, (2) The state, and (3) The federal government, in providing equal educational opportunities for all the children of America.

The Local Community.—It is the conviction of the writer that much harm will come to education when the intimate relationship between schools and patrons is disturbed by an outside authority. In order, therefore, to preserve and maintain local initiative, local interest and local resourcefulness for education, it seems desirable to make the local community responsible for those phases of the secondary-school budget which are more or less non-professional, yet which will safeguard interest and support. That is to say, the local communities should be held responsible for the construction of buildings, general operation and maintenance, supplies and equipment, transportation, and such other items of the secondary-school budget as may be regarded as non-professional. In addition, the localities should be extended the privilege of supplementing teachers' salaries in keeping with the ability to pay and educational zeal.

In placing this responsibility upon the localities, it must be borne in mind that many questions of policy will arise. Some of them are: (1) What type buildings shall be constructed? (2) What type equipment shall be bought? (3) To whom shall transportation be furnished? Under what conditions? and (4) What amount of insurance and what kind of insurance shall be carried?

The State's Responsibility.—The state's responsibility is very clear. If the purpose of education is the perpetuation and recreation of society, and if the school is society's formal institution for realizing this end, it follows that the state should furnish the necessary financial support to make this possible. This can be done best by having the state establish and support a minimum educational program on both the elementary and secondary levels. Such a program will nat-

urally be built around the teacher and the child to be taught or around instructional costs. It may be done either on the basis of the number of teaching units necessary, or in terms of the individual student. In either case you arrive at the same end, namely, having the state furnish the funds necessary to provide appropriate instruction to the students concerned.

In placing this responsibility upon the state, it should be recognized that policies governing such a program must be worked out. Some of the questions on which policies must be decided are: (1) What shall be the teaching load? (2) What shall be the teacher's salary? (3) What curriculum shall be offered? (4) What preparation must the teacher have? and (5) How many years of schooling shall be offered at public expense?

The Federal Government's Responsibility.—In the final analysis, when you refer to the locality, the state, and the federal government, you are referring to the same individuals all the time. Nevertheless, there are aspects of local, state, and federal responsibility that become rather definitely local, or definitely state or federal. For example, the locality obviously is anxious to have good buildings because of the enhanced values to local property. The state is anxious to perpetuate and recreate itself and hence is most interested in instruction. On the other hand, the federal government recognizes that the boy or girl reared and educated in one community may finally live and contribute to society in some far removed state or community. The boy educated in far off California may ultimately reside in New Jersey. Accordingly, the federal government has the same interest that the state has except on a much broader scale. This naturally leads to the federal government's helping to maintain an equal educational opportunity for all the children in America.

The National Advisory Committee on Education after devoting a complete volume to the federal government's responsibility for education, summed it up by saying, "The underlying idea is that, in matters of education, the various American governments should supplement and reinforce each other in a unified development of all the educational processes which are socially needed to foster the evaluation of our democratic

institutions, to perpetuate the spirit of our civilization, and to give each citizen his utmost chance."

This being the case, and in view of the wide discrepancies in the abilities of the several states to provide an adequate educational program, it is inevitable that the federal government should assist in supporting a program of equal educational opportunity for all the children of America. As said before, it is apparent that the well-being of every section of the United States is dependent upon the provisions for education made in each of the several states.

Much discussion and debate has taken place as to the responsibility of the federal government for education. A review of the literature on this topic reveals very definitely a gradually increasing attitude of favor to the matter. However, the age old question of federal control and state's rights constantly crops up. It has been suggested that it is neither necessary nor desirable that any federal agency should enter to control the expenditure of money made available to the several states.¹ This same authority adds, "All that can be required is an audit that will establish the fact that the money granted by the federal government has been used for the purpose for which it was appropriated."

Even if this solution is not satisfactory to those who may favor federal control, it would not be impossible to handle federal support of education in such way as to obviate federal control entirely.

It seems feasible that "The American people are justified in using their federal tax system to give financial aid to education in the states."² Although there is not adequate data now available to solve this problem immediately, it does appear that the recently appointed National Tax Committee, headed by Mr. Morgenthau, might be able to include this as a part of the problem which his committee is to study. If the federal government could by serving as the collecting agency for taxes, make appropriations to the several states on some objective basis, in terms of definite needs and abilities as revealed through the establishment of satisfactory minimum educational programs in each of the several states, thus leaving the

¹Strayer, George D., "Federal Responsibility for the Support of Education". *School Management*, December, 1934, page 53.

²National Advisory Committee, "Federal Relations to Education".

question of control to each state, there would be no reason for fearing federal control. In this connection, however, national policies determining need and ability to pay, on an objective basis, must be worked out and accepted.

Taxation.—Permeating the whole problem of financing secondary education is the question of taxation. In this connection the writer believes that the problems of taxation are so intricate and involved that a rather clear line of demarcation exists between the tax expert on the one hand and the professional educator on the other.

In the opinion of the writer, it is the duty of the educator to formulate the full and complete details of the educational program necessary to serve any particular community, state or nation. After formulating such a program, it is still the duty of the educator to defend and promulgate it. The educator should also be prepared to cooperate with the tax expert and the fiscal officers in general in finding the necessary revenues to finance such a program. However, it is, at the same time, the firm conviction of the writer that the tax expert should be held responsible for finding and providing the necessary sources of revenue for financing the program.

If the educator has really prepared and brought to the attention of the public in general a defensible and workable program, the public will, generally, pay the necessary taxes. Such a program must be predicated upon the fact that all waste in education has been eliminated and all possible leaks in loss of revenue have been stopped.

In addition to the financial policies considered in connection with the responsibility of the locality, the state, and the federal government for education, consideration must be given ultimately to such questions as: (1) Shall funds be earmarked for education? (2) Shall school people name and advocate certain forms of taxation or shall they merely point out possible sources of revenue? (3) Shall funds be earmarked specifically for secondary or elementary education? and (4) Shall school boards be fiscally independent?

The foregoing questions clearly indicate that certain policies with reference to taxation and financing in general must be formulated in order to finance properly secondary education or even education in general.

After long experience in the financing of educational programs, it has become rather obvious to the writer that there should be no earmarking of funds for any purposes whatsoever under governmental control. On the other hand, it is very clear that all sources of revenue which produce funds for governmental purposes should be pooled into one general treasury, and, in turn, allocated by the proper authorities of the state or nation to the several governmental functions in terms of their relative values and services rendered. That is to say, all moneys collected for governmental purposes should be appropriated out of the general treasury to the several governmental functions after these functions shall have been rated in terms of their relative value and services to the public. In order to do this, it will be necessary to have a very careful process of planning and budgeting prior to the meetings of the controlling body which usually performs the function of making appropriations. In these preliminary conferences, such as a budgeting committee would hold, the relative rank and value of any governmental function can be clearly brought to the attention of the budget-making body in terms of its value and services. The recommendations of such a body can, in turn, be included in the appropriation bill which ultimately will be presented to the legislative body making the appropriations to the various governmental functions.

In concluding, let me repeat that policies for the financing of the upper years of the public school or secondary-education program, must be worked out in terms of definite responsibilities being recognized and accepted by the local communities, the state, and the federal government. The acceptance of such a series of policies would insure a rather complete and satisfactory financial plan for guaranteeing equal educational opportunity to all the children of America.

THE PUBLIC AND THE PROGRAM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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Had one listened to much of the public clamor relative to economy during the last five years it would have been easy to conclude that all education, including secondary education, was quite unpopular. Certainly the high schools, latest addition to the family of popular education and attended by only one-half of the age group which they serve, came in for extended criticism.

Yet, as is always the case if you listen to only one bell, you hear only one sound. Moreover, the deepest, most thoroughly accepted feelings of a people are not so frequently paraded in the newspapers or on the public platform. It is the exceptional that makes headlines for the papers, not the underlying currents of society.

Hence we must look to the statistician's handbook rather than to the newspaper to find out what people really want. The moment we do that we find that the people have spoken in clear and unmistakable terms. Prior to 1905 only 10% of the young people of high-school age were actually enrolled in high school; in 1915 it had increased to 20%; in 1921 to 30%; in 1923 to 40%; in 1930 to 51½%; in 1932 to 57.9%, with a total enrollment of 5,592,872. It is estimated that in 1935 there will be 7,169,000, or 70.4% of our young people of high-school age enrolled in the secondary schools. Surely in all the field of social policy there is no more remarkable demonstration of popular faith than we have in the secondary schools unless it is the added fact that they have been demanded not merely in centers of population but in sparsely settled areas. The report for 1930 shows that 16,601 high schools of less than 200 enrollment dot the land. From this fact we are justified in concluding that popular zeal for the establishment of high schools has considerably outrun popular wisdom in their organization.

The present tremendous popularity of the secondary schools may well cause those who are in any way engaged in secondary education the deepest concern. The innumerable

problems raised by this new social trend should be approached with a soul-searching professional responsibility.

For it is to be remembered that the people of the United States are looking to the secondary schools as the great popular agency of light and hope. To be sure, as is usual, one does not often find so deep an aspiration expressed orally or in public print. Even more seldom does one find any extended analysis on the part of the public of the particular services which it expects the secondary schools to render.

Yet I am convinced that this opinion is not only there but that we can learn a great deal from it. In fact, while most of us, as a result of recent events and perhaps personal contacts, have less respect for business men as business men, we have far greater respect for them as plain citizens who sincerely wish to make their contribution toward the solution of our common problems.

I am, therefore, attempting the extremely difficult task of looking into the public mind to extract from it, if I can, a few of the most deep-seated aspirations it has relative to the secondary schools. As usual they are simple but they are fundamental to the preservation and development of American life.

First of all let us take one of the simplest purposes which parents are asking the schools to perform, namely, the custody of their sons and daughters as they are developing into young manhood and young womanhood. Economic conditions and legal provisions are conspiring to deny to young people, while there is so much unemployment among their elders, the opportunity to work in business before they are eighteen years of age. In actual practise the age restriction is often several years beyond 18.

Under these circumstances it is a distinct relief to anxious parents to know that there is an institution usually within easy reach where active and even troublesome young offspring can be lodged for a substantial portion of the day. If they are less interested in their studies than they might be there is often no great concern because after all so long as young people are in school they are in fairly safe company.

But there is a far deeper vein running through the popular mind than what amounts to the mere custodial aspects of

secondary-school life. There is a vague appreciation that the normal experiences of young people are limited less to the home than formerly and more to the community which is increasing in size and complexity. Moreover, the small number of social agencies of the past, such as the church, now share with a host of other social organizations the interests and attention of young people. Where there is new-found and extended freedom there is danger, and few parents there are who are not looking anxiously for any character building agency which will help to carry their sons and daughters through the critical period of their lives. I am confident that there is no other agency to which they turn more hopefully than the secondary schools. A few may scoff and certain members of Congress may shy, as they did recently at a small expenditure in the District of Columbia for character education, but deep in their hearts the people of this country very much prefer to support schools rather than jails. So then, all schools, particularly the secondary schools, are a great investment in character education to which they are looking with mingled hope and apprehension. They appreciate what we are doing but even where through neglect they themselves nullify our efforts in the home they want us to do better in helping to bring up their children.

There is another deep-seated aspiration which parents have for their children. They want them to have a chance to earn a better living. Strong men and weary mothers will deny themselves their own opportunity to live a modest cultural life in order that they may provide their sons and daughters with that education which they hope will enable them to live in comfort and even in affluence. The high school is the great popular avenue through which most of them hope to realize this ambition. Notwithstanding the progress of the last twenty-five years I believe that the public has less faith that we accomplish what is expected of us in this field than in the realm of character education. After all they know that other agencies, including the home, have a deep responsibility for developing among young people proper moral and spiritual qualities. The same situation does not obtain in vocational education. Instead of surrendering only a part of the responsibility as in the field of character training the home has, in most instances, given up completely its former responsibility in vocational

training. Not even a farmer's son can learn on a well conducted farm all that he ought to know about his vocation.

I believe, therefore, that the lay public, a large part of which now has sons, daughters or other close relatives enrolled in the secondary schools, is saying to us in unmistakable tones that the secondary school system should be so modified as to fit young people more definitely to take up some useful occupation. At the same time every father or mother knows that it is next to impossible for young people to learn all that they should know about technical processes and labor conditions except on some actual job or under conditions as closely resembling the normal situation as possible.

During the last quarter of a century there has been an undoubted tendency throughout most forms of technical and professional education to unite in some kind of combination subject matter training and actual experience. For example, no one now thinks of graduating a prospective doctor who has not had two years of clinical experience and often a fifth year of internship in a hospital. The education of a nurse is a combination of practical experience and class work. A school of dentistry without extensive clinical facilities for its students would be a joke. A large part of the work of a library school is identical with much that is done by these same young people after they graduate and are regularly employed. Prospective teachers in the schools test themselves out in practise schools and usually wish they had had more such practical experience before they begin as regular teachers. The coöperative courses in engineering have spread throughout the country.

From these and many similar examples I think that we may easily conclude that the public wishes us to continue an educational tendency—the soundness of which is now so clearly evident—and to do everything we can to combine all forms of vocational and technical education offered in high school with actual experience in the industry, on the farm or in any establishment to which high-school graduates go for employment. To accomplish this objective we must have, of course, not only a change of educational policy among high-school teachers and educational administrators, but a willingness on the part of industry and business to accept the social responsibility of providing these opportunities for practical experience to young people without exploitation.

Next I believe that the American people are looking somewhat apprehensively to the high schools for that type of training which will prepare young people to respond intelligently to their duties as citizens in our democratic form of government. They realize vaguely that it is not merely a matter of the ballot box on election day but more that subtle, yet very real process of the formulation of public opinion on matters of public consequence. Can we as educators reassure the people? What more do we need to do in this important field of secondary school work?

This summer it was my good fortune to view with increasing interest in one city after another in Italy and Germany groups of young men who went swinging down the street, eyes forward, shoulders erect, ardent disciples of a new day. There is high purpose there, enthusiasm, a sense of individual importance in the program and group action which seems to throw all our efforts at developing morale in classroom or out into disconcerting relief.

Fresh from such a sight I called one day at the office of an important national official in Berlin. Without realizing any too well to whom I was talking, I confessed in the usual way our concern in America relative to the character of secondary education, especially as to whether we could rely on our secondary schools to prepare men and women to carry on a democratic form of government. As quick as a flash he leaned across the desk and, looking me straight in the eye, said a bit indulgently, "Well, you people in America ought to know by this time that democracy won't work. We tried it in Germany and we know. Democracy always means ineffective administration, slow action and personal insecurity. It means that you are attempting to raise the level of the average up to the best. Nobody—not even you Americans—can do that. Hence, in Germany we are reducing sharply the enrollment in the universities and in the secondary schools and we are confining our educational efforts above the elementary schools to that small number of young people who are needed as leaders in the several walks of life, who alone have capacity for leadership and, hence, ability to govern."

Did you ever have a responsible person representing a great foreign nation put up to you so squarely what he believed to be the futility of democracy? Let us not be deceived.

These people in Italy, Germany, and Russia disagree violently with one another on most everything except that each country believes deeply that it has a form of government far superior to democracy. Is there not enthusiasm there? Is there not morale highly developed there? "Who," said one of my friends sadly a few days ago, "is enthusiastic about democracy?"

I have an abiding faith in democracy and in the ability of our schools and colleges to prepare young people and adults to practice it. But I am aware of the difficulties which my German friend pointed out so incisively. As I came away from that interview the thought kept coming back and back, What can a democracy develop not so much as "a moral substitute for war" but rather as a substitute for marching? For it must be remembered that the great demonstrations of morale in Germany and Italy have largely been developed outside the classroom. To these people they are not merely symbols of national unity and purpose, they are living expressions of their form of citizenship training. What have we to substitute for it?

Can we truthfully say that the average program of citizenship training in school or college, no matter what you severally choose to include in it, has life to it? Is there enthusiasm there for democracy as an ideal? If we cannot develop morale in the practise of democracy among young people while they are impressionable and idealistic, what can we expect of them when they grow old and cynical? Isn't it clear that we need to do something about it?

It is a hard job. Some program of national objectives imposed from above, some form of centralized action to attain them, and some form of citizenship training to participate in them all seem very simple and quickly secured in a centralized form of government. The processes of democracy, depending as they do on the mass, are slow in formulating objectives and slow in execution. We cannot deny the difficulties.

May I proceed to what I believe to be the solution? I once had the task of selecting a professor of sociology. I made up my mind that I did not want a man who would teach this important aspect of citizenship education from the textbook. Therefore, I made arrangements to employ him on a half-time basis at the university, leaving him free to spend the other

half of his time in contact with and research for the several welfare agencies in the city. Before the new professor had been at work very long I noticed an unusual student interest in sociology. Students began going down town to interview various city and civic agencies in order to secure information for term reports. It was apparent that there was an enthusiasm about the work in sociology which was based first on the vital approach of the teacher and secondly on the opportunity which the students had to come into contact with another aspect of life as it was being lived this time on the social plane. I verily believe that this experience can be repeated with profit in all of the social studies and that if done it would go a long way toward developing a more vigorous interest in these fields of work.

I predict further that when students come thus more frequently into contact with the living issues of life they will forsake some of those ephemeral and inconsequential interests which have absorbed their time and energy in years gone by. Even now one can feel pulsating through the schools and colleges a seriousness of purpose and a will to come to grip with the realities of life more than I can recall at any previous time in recent history. We may, indeed, be at the beginning of a youth movement in America.

A youth movement is one of the best means by which a nation may express its national ideals and purposes. "A true youth movement," declared Secretary Wallace recently, "must be a new, vital, adventurous approach to the potentialities of the coming age." In a centralized form of government such a movement can be concentrated into a single organization such as the Facisti in Italy. By capitalizing on the natural enthusiasm, high purpose, and patriotism of youth there is engendered a degree of morale which one seldom witnesses except when a great national cause is at stake.

In a democracy, on the other hand, a youth movement cannot consist of a single platform of principles and policies. Even those who profess to believe in indoctrination often disagree among themselves. It is significant that no one has yet written a series of specific goals for a democratic society which were generally acceptable and which were not out of date in a few short years unless they were so general as to be claimed by almost any form of government. No, the youth movement

in America, resembling all movements in our national history, will be a constant clashing of different philosophies out of which from time to time come those precious desiderata that ultimately make democracy wiser and more stable than its centralized contemporaries.

It follows that in a democracy a youth movement must consist not of a single organization, not of a lone avenue of expression, but of many. There are, indeed, almost innumerable processes by which we reach conclusions. It is not enough, therefore, that students in schools and colleges should have more frequent opportunity to come into actual contact with life as it is being lived on the social plane while they are yet students. These students must have their several avenues of expression, their means of joining themselves together in order to participate as do older citizens in that eternal process so basic in a democratic form of government, namely, the formulation of public opinion. Here they will discuss, debate, and resolve on matters of public moment. They will make many mistakes which is based on honest purpose and high resolve relative to social affairs. Out of innumerable expressions of this character comes ultimately the solution of problems and a morale that is safer and sounder than that now seen in any centralized form of government.

It would perhaps be difficult to prove but I believe that the young people of this country are unconsciously yearning for more avenues of expression and more opportunities for actual participation in the processes of our government. I am confident, furthermore, that the people generally are beginning to feel that nothing short of these contacts with actual civic situations while young people are still in school will ever be any more satisfactory as a preparation for citizenship than is the teaching of a vocation or a profession in the vacuum of a classroom.

Next I believe that the public wants to share the facilities of the high school with their children. In order that I may make myself clear may I point out that in small communities and in the open country the school was formerly a community center used by adults for a great variety of social and civic purposes. In some places this situation still obtains, but in most instances where primitive school houses may still be seen from an automobile passing rapidly over a well paved

road, as is the case in thousands of communities throughout this country, most forms of community life have been supplemented by cheap commercial amusements. I am convinced that the public is vaguely conscious of a great void in its set-up and that it wishes ardently to undertake new forms of community life along modern lines; and finally that it desires, as in earlier days, to center these efforts around the school.

Except in the more progressive communities such efforts are all but impossible for the simple reason that the school building and its grounds are constructed and laid out in such a way as to serve only the needs of young children. If to these could be added an auditorium, recreation facilities, a social room, demonstration materials, and many other facilities of interest to adults, I believe that especially the consolidated high schools could become effective centers of adult education, recreation, and social life. Such a high school takes on new meaning for aunts and uncles as well as for the parents themselves, because they too have something to enjoy and be proud of. Who can doubt but that any high school which is also a community center possesses a degree of public confidence and support on which it may rely in time of distress and trouble?

Finally I believe that the public is expecting us to take the lead in reorganizing secondary schools in order that they may better serve the various demands now being made on them. I realize that at first this may seem like a very doubtful statement because we have altogether too many examples where backward laymen have prevented school consolidations and have been content with primitive school conditions. Nevertheless to my mind there are other currents of public thought relative to our high schools which do not always find themselves eloquently set forth. I have already said that the public is not fully satisfied with high schools as character building agencies in training for citizenship, and with their efforts in the field of vocational education. These and other considerations point to the fact that the public has considerable doubts relative to the quality of performance in high schools. In many instances these doubts revolve around the personalities of high-school teachers and administrators.

On the other hand, there is now more frequently the deeper realization that small high-school units are expensive and

no more likely to be effective than local justices of the peace or township road systems. A very ordinary citizen can appreciate the fact that a small high school cannot become a community center and that it cannot at once prepare young people for a classical college and for a variety of vocations, including farming and auto mechanics. To the public, therefore, it is becoming evident that if appropriate attention is to be given to the varying needs of the community and of individual students high schools should be organized into units which are large enough to carry on a number of activities and courses of study economically. In the beginning of this process of school consolidation there are always very vocal critics just as there were in the case of roads, but after the change is made they soon give way to a deep and widespread sense of satisfaction. We should not, therefore, even in times of depression cease firing in the long battle to secure the consolidation of high schools into units large enough to be both effective and economical.

My friends if I have at all divined the public mind relative to what it is expecting of the high schools much remains yet to be done. The public is expecting us to take leadership relative to the solution of these problems. The public will follow that leadership though not hurriedly and with some questioning. The stake is of the utmost consequence. We should lose no time in responding to the challenge.

The session adjourned at 10:20 P. M.

THE FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

The fourth session of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was a joint meeting with the Department of Secondary Education. The meeting was called to order in the Vernon Room, Haddon Hall, at 9:55 A. M., by the President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, Mr. Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education of Little Rock, Arkansas, who presented Mr. Lewis, and immediately the First Vice-President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine. The latter at once introduced Mr. George S. Counts, Editor of *The Social Frontier*, who read his paper, *Secondary-School Curriculum Changes During the Past Three Hundred Years*.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF THE SECOND-ARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

GEORGE S. COUNTS,
Teachers College, Columbia University

The precise content of the first secondary-school curriculum organized within the present borders of the United States is shrouded in uncertainty. The difficulty arises from two considerations. In the first place, no historian seems to be absolutely sure where or when the first secondary school was founded; and in the second place, no record appears to be extant of just what was taught in any one of the earliest secondary schools at the time of its origin. Fortunately the indecision of the scholar has been removed in part by the action of practical men. Apparently the organizers of this conference have assumed that the Boston Latin School was our first secondary school and that it was founded in 1635. For this cutting of the Gordian Knot, I am grateful.

Unfortunately these same people have not told me of what the first curriculum of the first secondary school consisted. And the researches of the historian fail to correct the deficiency. About all we know with certainty is that on April 23, 1635, the citizens of Boston voted "that our brother, Philemon Pormont, shalbe intreated to become scholemaster for the teaching and nourtering of children with us." Whether Brother Pormont responded affirmatively to the entreaty and, if so, what materials of instruction he used in that memorable year of 1635 to teach and nurture the children of Boston, are not found in the record. In fact we are not even told the ages of the children to be brought under his care.

Our knowledge of the curriculum of the American secondary school of three hundred years ago, however, extends much farther than the foregoing would indicate. The colonists, being for the most part Englishmen, brought to the new world the educational ideas and practices then current in the homeland. These ideas and practices are fully documented. Also, from the records of colonial settlements which followed Boston in the establishment of secondary schools something can be learned. Then there are the entrance requirements of the early colleges, notably those of Harvard for the year 1642,

which indicate rather clearly what was expected of the preparatory institution. From all of these sources and others we may infer that the secondary school began its career on the North American continent with a curriculum dominated by Latin and hospitable to Greek, with some grudging recognition of the demands of the vernacular. In addition to various Latin and Greek grammars and exercises the pupils studied Caesar, Cicero, Tully, Virgil, Cato, Ovid, and Horace, Xenophon, Homer, and the Greek Testament. Even in their play they were urged to use the Latin language. The institution was appropriately named the Latin Grammar School. It was open only to boys, it required all pupils to pursue the same program of study, and it had a single clear-cut purpose—preparation for college.

The curriculum of the public high school to-day bears little resemblance to that of the Latin Grammar School of three centuries ago. A recent study of the programs of the senior or four-year high school for the year 1930-31 in 148 cities ranging in size from 2,500 to 20,000 inhabitants and well distributed over the country shows the character and extent of the changes. According to this study, there were listed in the high schools of these 148 cities 419 distinct courses.¹ Leading the great divisions of subject matter was neither Latin nor Greek, but commerce with 56 separate courses. English and home economics followed with 50 courses each. Then came social studies with 39, science with 38, industrial arts with 35, art with 32, mathematics with 25, music with 23, history with 21, teacher training with 19, agriculture with 15, physical education with 9, and foreign language with 7. While this list taken by itself fails to reveal the actual emphasis in the program, the foreign languages being far more important than the assigned figure indicates, it nevertheless presents a fairly authentic picture of the situation. Truly a strange picture when viewed through the eyes of the seventeenth century.

The complete story, however, is not told by reciting the subjects to be found in the course of study. Quite as important, according to some opinion, is the program of student activities lying outside the formal curriculum—subject clubs,

¹A. K. Loomis, Edwin S. Lide, and B. Lamar Johnson, *The Program of Studies*, National Survey of Secondary Education, Bulletin, 1932 No. 17 (Washington, 1933), 133.

avocational clubs, student government, school service organizations, honorary societies, social groups, student publications, literary clubs, music organizations, and numerous athletic organizations and activities. In four secondary schools in the Chicago region there were found 248 different activities for the period 1925-1930. Practically all of these activities were entirely absent in the Latin Grammar School. More than that, they would have been frowned upon as unworthy and even sinful by the schoolmaster in the days of Ezekiel Cheever.

As the student of secondary education contrasts the curriculum of the Latin Grammar School with the curriculum of a progressive public high school of 1935, he can only wonder that the one could have evolved out of the other. There is crowded into that contrast three hundred years of educational history, of pedagogical experimentation, of growth and expansion of the secondary school. But even that does not close the account. In that contrast is recorded three centuries of the history of the American people—the crossing of the Atlantic, the struggle to gain a foothold in the new world, the battle to live in a strange environment, the development of a simple commercial capitalism, the achievement of political independence from the mother country, the founding of the nation, the march across a continent of fabulous natural riches, the spread of extreme doctrines of economic individualism, the rise of the common man to political power, the growth of science and technology, the secularization of thought and interests, the advance of industrial capitalism, the closing of the frontier, the conquest of mechanical energy, the decline of agriculture and rural life, the appearance of a closely interdependent society, the trend toward concentration of wealth and property in a small class, the emergence of the United States as a world power, and the precipitation of the American people in our time into a profound economic and cultural crisis which embraces in growing measure the entire civilized world. All of these factors and forces besides many not here catalogued, have left their imprint on the secondary-school curriculum. Education in every one of its divisions is but an aspect of the evolving culture.

At this point I might proceed to repeat in detail the well-worn account of the development of the secondary-school cur-

riculum from the Latin Grammar School to the public high school of our day, telling of the decline of the classics, of the emergence and fortunes of each of the great divisions of subject matter: mathematics, modern foreign language, natural science, English history, social studies, art, physical education, and vocational subjects, of the changing policies and practices regarding the organization and administration of the total program of studies. But this would be unprofitable. It has been done already by many competent students, and far more completely than it could be done here in a brief paper. My allotment of space and time would scarcely permit the mere listing of even the more important changes occurring during these three centuries. I have consequently decided to limit my remarks to the elaboration of a few thoughts about the changes which have taken place in the curriculum since Brother Portmont was invited by the citizens of Boston to undertake the task of "teaching and nourtering" their children. What I have to say will be in the nature of a social interpretation of the secondary-school program in America.

- The curriculum of the Latin Grammar School will be taken as a point of departure. Concerning its origin nothing will be said. It was brought to America by the English settlers, as they brought the English language, English manners, English tools and weapons, English institutions, and English ideas and doctrines of the age. It was part and parcel of the transplanted culture and shared the fortunes of that culture in the new environment. It was organically related to the structure of the society that the first colonists endeavored to transport across the Atlantic.

It must be kept clearly in mind that conceptions of democracy and even the institutions of capitalism were practically unknown to the first settlers on the Virginia and Massachusetts coasts. Although distintegrating forces were already at work, the expectation of both leaders and led was the founding of a society after the inherited English model, essentially feudalistic in character, with land held very generally under lease from an overlord, and with the graduation of ranks characteristic of the mother country. According to Thomas Jefferson Wertenbaker, even in New England, where freehold ownership of land was common, society in the seventeenth cen-

tury manifested a clear class structure.¹ At the top were clergymen, Englishmen of gentle birth, and wealthy merchants. Then followed in order skilled artisans and freeholders, unskilled laborers, indentured servants, and, at the very bottom, Indian and negro slaves. While the higher orders of English society were rarely represented in America and while social mobility was much greater here than on the other side of the Atlantic, these several ranks were very real, carrying definite status and well-defined privileges. Thus, a member of the ruling aristocracy was addressed as lady or gentleman and the artisan or freeholder as goodwife or goodman. Representatives of the three lower orders were usually addressed by the Christian name alone and were rarely admitted to political citizenship. Also, as Mr. Wertenbaker says, "the gentleman was permitted to adorn himself with articles of dress forbidden to the goodman; the goodman wore others which were withheld from the day laborer or the servant."² In Connecticut in 1676 thirty-eight women and thirty young men were called before the magistrates for "wearing silk, some for long hair and other extravagancies,"³ in a word, for living beyond their station.

It was in such a society that the Latin Grammar School flourished. While we know little about the social origins of the boys attending this institution in early colonial times, it may be confidently assumed that they came from the upper ranks of the population. We do know, moreover, that the curriculum prepared very specifically for Harvard College which in turn was engaged in equipping young men to discharge the duties of the most important branch of the aristocracy, the clergy. We also know that the number of pupils must have been infinitesimally small. At the close of the seventeenth century, according to Ezekiel Cheever, the attendance at Harvard amounted to only "forty or fifty children, few of them capable of edification by such exercises."

But powerful forces were at work in the colonies, as well as in the whole western world. The transplanted culture withered under the impact of the strange environment. What-

¹Thomas Jefferson Wertenbaker, *The First Americans* (New York, 1929), 72-73.

²*Ibid.*, 73.

³*Ibid.*, 74.

ever the impulse driving men and women across the Atlantic, having arrived in the new world they at once came under its molding influence. First of all, they had to make a living, and on the terms dictated by the conditions in America: fighting Indians, pushing back the forest, and cultivating the soil with crude implements. All of this bred a practical temper in the people and generally compelled them to recast their standards of value. Even Pastorius, perhaps the most learned man in the colonies at the opening of the eighteenth century, a man who employed eight languages in keeping his diary, admitted in melancholy mood that "never have metaphysics and Aristotelian logic . . . earned a loaf of bread."¹

The American colonies also though perhaps somewhat belatedly, came under the spell of that influence which in the words of Preserved Smith is the greatest "of all the elements of modern culture, as of all the forces moulding modern life" science.² The spirit of rationalism invaded the sacred precincts of theology, organizations with avowedly secular purposes were established from Salem to Savannah, the Free Masons spread lodges through the country, the works of Sidney, Locke, Cumberland, and Pufendorf were widely read, and in 1743 Benjamin Franklin was instrumental in founding the first American Philosophical Society. Printing advanced, newspapers and journals appeared, interest in painting, drama, and music increased, men engaged in political speculation talked about the indefinite perfectability of man and all human institutions, and concluded that happiness here and now on this earth is a worthy goal of endeavor. The following excerpt from an article appearing in the *Virginia Gazette* in 1737 and reprinted six years later in the *American Magazine* of Boston reveals the temper of the age:

The World, but a few Ages since, was in a very poor condition, as to Trade, and Navitation. Nor, indeed, were they much better in other Matters of useful Knowledge. It was a Green-headed Time, every useful Improvement was bid from them; they had neither look'd into Heaven nor Earth; into the Sea, nor Land, as has been done since. They had Philosophy without Experiment; Mathematics without Instruments; Geometry without Scale; Astron-

¹James Truslow Adams, *Provincial Society* (New York, 1928), 114.

²Preserved Smith, *A History of Modern Culture* (New York, 1930), I, 17.

omy without Demonstration. . . They went to Sea without Compass; and sail'd without the Needle. They view'd the Stars without Telescopes; and measured Latitude without Observation. . . They had Surgery without Anatomy, and Physicians without Materia Medica. . . . As for Geographic Discoveries, they had neither seen the North Cape, nor the Cape of Good Hope. . . . As they were ignorant of Places, so of Things also; so vast are the Improvements of Sciences, that all our Knowledge of Mathematics, of Nature, of the brightest Part of humane Wisdom, had their Admission among us within the last two Centuries. . . . The World is now daily increasing in experimental Knowledge, and let no Man flatter the Age with pretending we are arrived to a Perfection of Discoveries.¹

At this same time profound changes were taking place in the colonial economic and social order. The Indian was retreating, the population growing, land values rising, wealth increasing, technology advancing, commerce developing, manufactures appearing, towns growing and general economic security improving. In a word the European settlers and their descendants, or at any rate the more shrewd, ambitious, and fortunately placed among them, had learned how to live and prosper in the new world. Men were beginning to realize dimly that the North American continent was fabulously rich and provided unparalleled opportunities for the accumulation of material possessions. Particularly through trade and land speculation were fortunes acquired.

This development in America was of course but part of a larger movement which had been gathering momentum for several centuries in the western world. It signalized the birth of a new economic order and the rise of new men to power. "In one sense," says Harold J. Laski, "the fundamental event in the seventeenth century is the emergence of the middle class into political significance."² And it was this class that was appearing in America, amidst social, economic, and natural surroundings peculiarly favorable to its growth. No powerful feudal aristocracy barred its way to power and the richest continent in the world was just waiting to be exploited.

During the first half of the eighteenth century in New England new names, not listed among the early leaders and

¹*Ibid.*, 273.

²Harold J. Laski, "The Rise of Liberalism," in the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* (New York, 1930), I, 107.

founders, appear on the roster of public and influential men: Brown, Waldo, Morris, Rutter, McCall, Potts, and others. The ministry declines; leadership passes to business enterprise. Young men intended for the church turn aside to civil life: Stoughton, Gridley, and Stephen Sewal in Massachusetts and Gurdon Saltonstall Jr. and Johnathan Trumbell in Connecticut.¹ Merchants like Thomas Brattle and Robert Calef oppose successfully in the intellectual realm the authority of New England's most eminent clergyman, Cotton Mather. The lawyer enters the political arena and forms an alliance with landowners and large capitalists, an alliance that remains practically unbroken down to our own day. Along with this rise of a new social class to power appear appropriate political ideas and doctrines, parliamentary government, economic individualism, and liberalism. Benjamin Franklin, born in 1706 and dying in 1790, epitomizes in his life, works, and thought the social transformation in process. In his *Advice to a Young Tradesman* Max Weber finds the "true spirit of capitalism." And the *Declaration of Independence* and the *Wealth of Nations*, both published in 1776, place in imperishable documents the thought, aspirations, and social outlook of the emergent age.

It was in this great revolutionary epoch that the American secondary-school curriculum underwent the most profound changes in its history. Whether the institutions responsible for the inauguration of these changes were called grammar schools, English schools, English Grammar schools, or academies seems to be a relatively unimportant matter. The fact is that from the beginning of the eighteenth century there were some opportunities in the colonies for the study of each of the great divisions of subject matter now taught in the high school, even including strictly vocational subjects such as surveying, navigation, and bookkeeping. These opportunities, moreover, were opened to some extent to girls as well as to boys. It is apparent therefore that the century which gave birth to the academy was the really creative century during the three hundred years under consideration. It fashioned a program and a philosophy which have remained in fundamentals unaltered down to the present day. The changes, the additions, the sub-

¹James Truslow Adams, *op. cit.*, 236.

tractions, if the extra-curriculum activities are expected, have been minor in character.

The underlying philosophy of the eighteenth century program merits examination. It was at bottom the philosophy of capitalism. Repudiating primary allegiance to both church and state, it was essentially private in orientation, as well as in control and support, and conceived of life in individualistic terms. The fact that Franklin was so closely associated with the development of the academy is extremely significant. As already pointed out, he symbolized in a remarkable way the rising capitalistic order. The great object of the new curriculum of English, modern foreign language, mathematics, science, history, geography, and strictly vocational subjects was clearly to help the individual to achieve a successful career in a competitive world. And it was assumed, in accordance with the philosophy of the period, that the social welfare would be safeguarded and promoted most fully, if only each individual would devote himself assiduously to the advancement of his own interests. The primary function of education therefore was to equip the individual to pursue this role.

The account, however, cannot be left here. There are three other factors which must be brought into the picture: the rise of political democracy, the westward movement of the population, and the development of industrial capitalism. It is of course recognized that the capitalism of Benjamin Franklin, was primarily commercial in character.

The rise of political democracy was one facet of the emergence of the middle class. At any rate, through the molding influence of the frontier and other forces at work in America and Western Europe, from John Klise, the son of an indentured laborer who battled for popular rights with Cotton Mather, to Thomas Jefferson and John Taylor, equalitarian social doctrines developed into a powerful American tradition. The War of Independence particularly served to spread such doctrines in America, contrary to the desires of certain well-born leaders. "The mob begin to think and to reason," observed Gouverneur Morris in 1774. "Poor reptiles! it is with them a vernal morning; they are struggling to case off their winter's slough, they bask in the sunshine, and ere noon they will bite,

depend upon it. The gentry begin to fear this."¹ And they did bite, or at least snap at their betters in the turbulent times immediately following the war. County conventions in New Hampshire and Massachusetts in 1784 and 1785 even went so far as to declare "that the state senate should be abolished and that all property should be held in common."² But in the Constitutional Convention the aristocratic and propertied classes recaptured the citadels of power.

In the years that followed a concerted effort was made to hold back the forces of democracy. The Hamiltonian group apparently hoped to establish a monarchy on the English model and introduce the ranks and titles of English society. In a Fourth of July oration Timothy Dwight of Connecticut declared that the object of democracy was "to destroy every trace of civilization in the world, and force mankind back into a savage state."³ Even Daniel Webster opposed universal white manhood suffrage. But the people would not be thwarted. The men of the frontier, combining with the poorer classes in the East, and under the leadership first of Jefferson and then of Jackson triumphed in 1800 and 1828. Thereafter all the trappings of aristocracy dropped away and even aristocrats when engaged in politics assumed the dress and manner of democracy. Webster now "apologized in public because he had not been born in a log cabin."⁴ And the public high school, a free academy, made its appearance. The state thus placed its resources behind a type of secondary education designed to enable the individual, if not too poorly situated, to climb out of the lower orders and into the ranks of actual, though not professed, aristocracy, an aristocracy which assumed more and more the character of a plutocracy.

The full development of the high school, however, was retarded by the relative simplicity of the economic and social structure. The great masses of the population was engaged in farming of a relatively self-contained type and were consequently living under pre-capitalistic conditions. Society was predominantly agrarian in form and outlook. Then there was the westward movement of population which gave a spe-

¹Arthur Meier Schlesinger, *New Viewpoints in American History* (New York, 1928), 76.

²*Ibid.*, 80.

³*Ibid.*, 84.

⁴*Ibid.*, 89.

cial orientation to the American people. Until the closing of the frontier in 1890 the great opportunities for youth lay, not in factory, shop, and counting house, but beyond the Alleghany mountains in the basin of the Mississippi and on to waters of the Pacific. And a tradition of going west was established among the youth of the country which persists even to this day, more than a generation after its foundations have been destroyed. Since the life on the frontier and on the farm made few demands upon book learning, a sufficient motive for high-school attendance was lacking. So, while there was marked development of the academy in the middle of the century, the expansion of secondary education awaited the exhaustion of free land.

The nineteenth century also witnessed the rapid rise of a contrary force, industrial capitalism. For a time the pull of this new force upon youth was more than balanced by the pull of the frontier. But gradually, as technology advanced with ever more rapid stride, the relative strength of the contending forces was reversed and industry assumed the dominant role in the life of the nation. New occupations appeared, divided, and subdivided indefinitely, and displaced free land as the great magnet of youth. Since the more desirable of these occupations required systematic preparation beyond the level of simple literacy, the road to success lay increasingly through the secondary school. Emphases in the curriculum shifted to keep pace with the march of industrialism. Certain old divisions were expanded, as others were contracted, and any subject that might be expected to help some youngster to success, according to the standards of the time, was welcomed into the program of studies—even salesmanship and advertising. But the underlying social and educational philosophy remained in basic positions the philosophy of mercantile capitalism of the early eighteenth century, tempered by such partial efforts at reconstruction as the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.

To-day capitalism, both in its mercantile and industrial phases, seems to have run its course; and the cycle beginning with the rise of the academy appears to be closing. Out of the strongly individualistic economy of Franklin's day, in which capitalistic enterprise was confined largely to trade, has come a highly industrialized economy marked by close integration

and interdependence. In fact under the drive of technology, fostered by individual enterprise, there has emerged an economy which is essentially collectivist in nature. If this is true, as I believe it is, we face to-day in the secondary-school curriculum problems quite as crucial as those which our fathers faced two hundred years ago. The controlling principle of promoting individual success in a competitive world will have to give way to one of advancing the social welfare in a highly cooperative order. But these speculations have to do with the future. My assignment was to tell of the past.

The chairman introduced Principal Emeritus William Wetzel, Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey, the author of the paper entitled, *Three Hundred Years of Changes in Teacher Training for Secondary Schools*, which was read by Howard D. White, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of New Jersey.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF CHANGES IN TEACHER TRAINING FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WILLIAM A. WETZEL

Emeritus Principal, Central High School
Trenton, New Jersey.

In tracing the history of secondary education in the United States it is customary to speak of three eras. The first is marked by the Latin Grammar School, which continued through the first half of the eighteenth century; the second by the academy, which has come down to modern times, but had the field practically to itself until about the middle of the nineteenth century; the third by the public high school, which, though it existed before the middle of the nineteenth century did not really begin to spread throughout the country until 1890.

The origin of the early Latin or Classical School lay in a desire "to promote the welfare of the Church and Commonwealth".¹

The primary motive of the General Court in Massachusetts in creating a system of township schools by passing the act of 1647 was to circumvent "that old deluder Satan", one of whose chief projects was said to be to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures.

The promoters of the Academy, of whom Benjamin Franklin was one, disapproved of the extreme emphasis placed on the classical languages by the Latin Schools, and proposed a more practical program of education. Concerning the program of studies Franklin said (Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania) that it would be well if the youth "could be taught every Thing that is useful, and every Thing that is ornamental. But Art is long and Their time is short. It is therefore proposed that they learn those Things that are likely to be most useful and ornamental".²

Franklin's proposals were extensive and undoubtedly timely. Present day critics of the "elaborate" secondary-

¹Kandel—*History of Secondary Education*, p. 111.

²Mulhern—*A History of Secondary Education in Pennsylvania*, p. 178.

school program would derive little support from a study of Benjamin Franklin's program of secondary education.

However, it cannot be said that the academy dealt a death blow to the study of foreign languages. Even Franklin was compelled to compromise by stating in his program that "all intended for Divinity should be taught the Latin and Greek; for physick the Latin, Greek, and French; for Law the Latin and French; Merchants the French, German and Spanish." He added that while all should not be compelled to learn Greek, Latin, and the modern foreign languages, "yet none that have an ardent Desire to learn them should be refused." The foreign languages survived the attack of the academicians and to-day are still probably commanding more pupil hours in many high schools than can be justified by their actual worth to the pupils studying them.

One could readily devote the entire time allotted to this paper to portray the magnificent character of some of the early schoolmasters who presided over the Latin schools and academies. For profound scholarship, great professional zeal, indefatigable energy, and deep religious convictions these men set a worthy example to the modern schoolmaster.

I present a brief sketch of the first headmaster of Phillips Academy at Andover. He is not entirely representative of all the early schoolmasters, but still he is more or less typical of his time.¹

Eliphalet Pearson graduated from Harvard College in 1773 and became the first headmaster at Andover in 1778. He was a man of deep scholarship; like many of the early schoolmasters, he was especially well versed in the languages. He was a master of Hebrew, Syriac, and Coptic, as well as Latin, Greek, and French. On Exhibition days at Andover, when the trustees were present in state, he addressed the boys in "sonorous Latin". He left the principalship of Andover to become Hancock Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Languages at Harvard University.

He was a man of firm religious beliefs, a brilliant preacher, and the author of a treatise upon psalmody. He was the founder of the Divinity school at Andover and for one year filled the chair of Professor of Sacred Literature.

¹For the facts of this sketch I am indebted to Mr. Claude M. Fuess, the present headmaster at Andover.

He held his own among men of the world. He was a skilled mechanic, an excellent agriculturalist, and a shrewd business man. He was a good musician. It is said that in church his nostrils expanded like those of a war horse as he led with his deep bass voice the hymn to the tune of Old Hundred. He was an excellent performer on the cello, and is said to have made his own musical instrument.

As a schoolmaster he was "austere and cold in manner, more accustomed to exact obedience than to inspire affection", stern, inflexible, and inclined to be dogmatic. This quality of dogmatism seems to have been common among the early schoolmasters, and traces of it may frequently be found even in the modern schoolmaster. Possibly the reason is first that he deals constantly with children and secondly that he devotes so much time to imparting the learning of past ages, which he considers a closed book.

Even in the briefest kind of treatment of my topic one must pause to pay respect to the great constructive statesmen in the field of public education. Among these Horace Mann of Massachusetts, Henry Barnard of Rhode Island, and Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, loom large. Passing reference should also be made to Charles W. Eliot, Mary Lyon, and James M. Greenwood, who are typical of many teachers to whom the secondary schools owe much of their professional spirit.

Then again one may not disregard the great contribution to the improvement of the training of secondary-school teachers made by the Teachers Colleges. At Teachers College, Columbia University, men like Julius Sachs, Thomas H. Briggs his successor, John Dewey, William H. Kilpatrick, and Edward L. Thorndike; and at the University of Chicago Henry C. Morrison and Charles H. Judd stand out prominently in the picture.

For want of time I am compelled to place in one miscellaneous paragraph reference to the great influence over the professional attitude and practices of teachers in the early days, of the reading circles where books like Brooks's *Methods of Teaching*, Page's *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, White's *Elements of Pedagogy* and *School Management* were studied, and of the county institute where men like Oscar T. Corson from Ohio and Henry Houck from Pennsylvania held forth. In gen-

eral whether it was a textbook or a platform lecture, back of it was a great teaching personality.

A full treatment of my topic would also require that I trace the history of the introduction of those subjects which like music, art, home economics, and manual training, came in under the name of special subjects but which to-day have earned the right to full membership in the circle of secondary-school subjects. But both lack of space and lack of facility of research from the desk of a busy urban high-school principal prevent the treatment of this topic.

With considerable satisfaction, however, I record the fact that the training of home economics teachers, which at first was confined to developing skills in cooking and sewing, has been broadened to include foods and nutrition, textiles, and clothing, home art, and in general the whole field of homemaking.

Still another interesting bypath in exploring the general field of the training of secondary-school teachers would lead one to trace the history of such special topics as guidance, tests and measurements, and educational psychology, all of which have been introduced within the memory of most of us.

It seemed best, however, to devote most of the time allotted to me to trace the history of the training of public high-school teachers, as demand for this training is reflected in the certification regulations of the various states. The source of most of my information is a questionnaire submitted to the office of each of the forty-eight state superintendents of public instruction. My facts are just as reliable as the replies to the questionnaire. In this summary, however, Tennessee, Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, Iowa, Mississippi, Montana, Colorado, Arizona, and Oregon are missing because no replies were received from these states.

The states generally established training schools for teachers early in their history. Vermont was the first to establish such a school, in 1823. Delaware followed in 1835, Massachusetts in 1839, and New York in 1844. The interest in public education in the states formed out of the Northwest territory is forecast in the Ordinance of 1787, which declared that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged". One of the early state normal schools to be established

was the one at Ypsilanti, Michigan, in 1849, which has continued as a potent factor in the training of teachers until the present time. However, the normal schools in apparently every instance were planned distinctly to train elementary-school teachers. It would be interesting to know why for so many years professional training was considered essential for elementary teachers, but not necessary for high-school teachers, and why even to-day it is not considered necessary for college teachers.

In the history of state regulations concerning the certification of teachers, three states are conspicuous. Rhode Island, the state founded by Roger Williams, the state known from its beginning for its liberal tendencies, for its defense of the democratic ideals of freedom of the individual, was the first state to undertake a state-wide regulation concerning the certification of teachers. The Rhode Island Act of 1800 provided that "no person shall establish or direct as master or preceptor, any school or academy of instruction in reading, writing, grammar, or mathematics, unless he shall be a native or naturalized citizen of the United States and be approved by a certificate in writing from the town council of the town in which he shall teach".

Several observations are interesting at this point: first that the law applied to all teachers whether in public or in private schools; secondly that the direct certifying agency was a local agency; and thirdly that there was no differentiation between the certification of elementary and the certification of secondary-school teachers. These last two features were followed in all the states and continued until comparatively recent times. There are still teachers in some of our high schools whose sole legal authority to teach rests upon a local certificate.

As early as 1845, under the influence of Henry Barnard, an act of the legislature authorized the Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island to issue a state certificate. But local appointing agencies were so jealous of their powers as to confine their selection of teachers to those candidates who were locally certificated. Consequently there were few applicants for state certificates.

It probably was not accidental that the second state to regulate the granting of teachers certificates was Ohio, the

first state to be formed out of the new Northwest territory. The date was 1821.

William Penn in his "Frame of Government Constructed for the Colony of Pennsylvania", which included what is now a part of Delaware, indulges in some wholesome opinions concerning the foundations of a free people. Any government, says Penn, is "free to the people under it, when the laws rule and the people are a party to those laws." "Governments", says Penn, "like clocks, go from the motion men give them. That, therefore," he concludes, "which makes a good constitution, must keep it, viz.: men of wisdom and virtue, qualities, that because they descend not with worldly inheritances must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth."¹ It is not surprising therefore that with this liberal background Delaware should have been the third state to enter the field of regulating by state authority the granting of teachers' certificates. The date was 1829.

No tendency toward a typical training of secondary-school teachers can be discovered until the beginning of the present century. The law in general placed the responsibility of determining fitness upon local agencies—in some cases a town committee, in others the county superintendent, in others a committee appointed by the County Court, and in one state (Texas) the county judge himself, on the basis of an oral examination. Under these circumstances it is easy to understand, especially when one remembers the extraordinary demand for high-school teachers during the last forty years due to the rapid increase in the high-school enrolment, that the quality of fitness of secondary-school teachers varied with the locality. It ranged all the way from less than the equivalent of high-school graduation through graduation from an academy or normal school to a college degree.

The Barnard Act of 1842 in Rhode Island probably went as far as any regulation of that time, to dictate a general state policy. The statute forbade the issuing of a certificate, whether local or state, "unless the person named in the same shall produce evidence of good moral character and be found on examination, or by experience, qualified to teach the English lan-

¹William Penn. *Frame of Government Constructed for the Colony of Pennsylvania*, 1682.

guage, arithmetic, penmanship, and the rudiments of geography and history, and to govern a school."

Beginning with the twentieth century, the state began to exert a stronger influence over the training of secondary-school teachers.

Here again Rhode Island led the procession. In 1898 the State Board of Education became the exclusive agency for certifying teachers for public-school service. The State Board could certificate on examination or on satisfactory evidence of qualification, and could determine the qualification for eligibility.

This regulation cut the groove for practically every state. The only exception of which I know is the state of Massachusetts, which has no system of state certification.

An illustration of the way in which the state began to assert its authority is my first certificate issued by the State of Pennsylvania. This certificate issued in 1895 on the basis of college graduation authorized me to teach or to supervise any subject which I had studied in college. No professional training was required. Since my position as supervising principal demanded contact with the common branches and since I had not studied these in college, it was necessary to support my state certificate with an additional certificate covering the common branches, issued by the county superintendent on examination. This kind of state certificate was in vogue in Pennsylvania until 1922.

Another illustration of the gradual extension of state control over the certification of teachers is a supplementary state examination in certain subjects, partly professional, given to holders of the highest grade of county certificate. Such was the third grade state certificate issued in New Jersey for which an examination in psychology was necessary.

In New Jersey at the beginning of this century the highest grade state certificate was granted without examination and authorized the holder to teach, supervise or administer any thing in the whole gamut of public instruction.

In general, requirements for a state secondary-teacher's certificate could be met in any state up to 1900 by college grad-

uation from a standard four-year college or university. From 1900 to approximately 1915, stray requirements to pass additional state examinations in certain professional subjects like the school law, or the secondary-school program of the state, or educational psychology, began to appear. During all this time in increasing numbers state boards were given the powers granted to the Rhode Island Board in 1898. But the various state boards were slow to assert supreme authority.

Solitary instances of differentiation between the elementary and the secondary certificates appeared in the latter half of the nineteenth century. In general the secondary certificate required an examination in more and higher branches. For example, Missouri in 1865 required two additional subjects, higher mathematics and science, for a high-school certificate. But beginning with about 1915, state boards began to assume complete control of the certification of teachers, and to differentiate clearly between elementary and secondary teachers' certificates. The year 1915 may be said to mark the beginning of the professionalization of the occupation of teaching. Year after year up to the present time the field of training has been more clearly defined.

The following has been the general trend. At first college graduation was assumed to be sufficient evidence of academic fitness to teach any high-school subject. The custom of issuing blanket certificates on the basis of college graduation has been generally discontinued.¹ The state of Utah presents the anomalous situation of requiring college academic training in specific subjects and then allowing blanket certification. In Utah, for example, a teacher may have a major preparation in chemistry and minors in physics and biology, and then be allowed to teach Public Speaking or Latin.²

The requirements for professional training were introduced gradually in the different states. The candidate was at first required to include in his college course a minimum number of hours of work in secondary education. This requirement varied from evidence that the candidate "had work in aims and methods of secondary education and practice teaching" (Delaware), to a specification of certain required subjects, like principles of secondary education and the philosophy of secondary education.

The next step was to require adequate academic preparation in at least one major college subject and one or two minor subjects.

The almost universal requirement for a secondary school-teacher's certificate to-day is as follows: (1) College graduation from a standard four year college or university, (2) The systematic study of a major subject to the extent of 24 to 30 semester hours, and one minor subject with approximately 12 to 18 hours, or two minors with correspondingly fewer hours, and (3) Courses in education varying from six to 18 semester hours.

Some states allow a wide latitude in the choice of the courses in education. The demands of other states are fairly rigid. New Jersey is an example of the latter. In a total of 18 semester hours in New Jersey, only three semester hours are in the elective class.

A few states demand a common college training in addition to the major and minor requirements. California and Florida require evidence of knowledge of the Constitution of the United States. Indeed, California requires a special brand of knowledge of the Constitution which must be obtained in a California teacher training institution unless the candidate can run the gauntlet of a state examination in this subject. Alabama sets a definite list of core subjects as follows: English Grammar and Composition, 6 semester hours; English Literature, 6 semester hours; Social Studies, 12 semester hours; Science, biology recommended, 6 semester hours; General Psychology, 4 semester hours.

New Jersey states its core requirements in more general language as follows: 12 semester hours in English Language and Literature, 12 in Social Studies and 6 in Science.

As far as I could learn California is the only state that requires one full year of graduate work beyond college graduation for a secondary-school teacher's certificate.¹

¹California, Main, New Hampshire (until 1936), Vermont, Michigan, Wisconsin, North Dakota, Idaho, Kansas, New Mexico, Utah, and Louisiana still issue blanket certificates.

²The Utah State Board of Education in an official circular strongly recommends that so far as possible teachers be required to teach only those subjects in which they have either a major or a minor.

One of the latest innovations in the extension of the training of secondary-school teachers is a regulation to go into effect in the state of New York in September, 1935.

Under this regulation New York will grant a five year provisional certificate on the basis of the usual number of semester hours in academic and professional courses. But renewal of the certificate at the end of five years is conditioned on the completion of 15 semester hours in approved courses beyond the minimum preparation required for the provisional certificate. The regulation further provides that the certificate may be renewed for successive ten year periods only on the completion of six semester hours of advanced work in each instance.

I express the hope that in the exaction of these additional hours due consideration will be given to the need of growth in scholarship as well as in professional training. Many communities tried during the last twenty years to improve the quality of secondary-school instruction by offering a bonus for the completion of advanced courses. But my judgment is that this resulted in too many master's degrees in pedagogy and not enough in subject matter.

Some states still certificate junior high-school teachers on less than four years of college work. But the distinct tendency is to consider junior and senior high-school teachers in the same class.

In general state boards have ceased to grant certificates on examination¹ and will grant certificates only on evidence of courses taken in accredited institutions. This leads me to say that the influence of the regional accrediting agencies in elevating the standards of secondary-teacher training has been very great. Their lists of accredited higher institutions of learning are respected by state boards and their requirements for admission to the list of accredited high schools have elevated considerably both the academic and the professional training of secondary-school teachers in the United States.

From the time that state boards of education assumed complete control of the certification of public school teachers,

¹After July 1, 1935 New Jersey will require an additional year of professional training of those graduates of liberal arts college whose undergraduate work did not include the required courses in education and practise teaching.

and differentiated clearly between elementary and secondary certificates, the state normal schools began to extend their courses to four years, to change their title to state teachers colleges, and to make a bid for the training of high-school teachers. This has resulted in some competition between the new normal school and the liberal arts college in this field of teacher training.

In my judgment neither institution is prepared to monopolize the field, and each may be a tonic to the other so long as we have on the one hand schools like the liberal arts College for Women at the University of Pennsylvania, and on the other hand State Teachers Colleges like the one recently established at Montclair, New Jersey.

In conclusion I submit the following critical summary of the present situation in the training of secondary-school teachers as I see it.

1. That, while we call ourselves a democracy, we do not insist that every prospective secondary-school teacher, regardless of the subjects which he expects to teach, should be thoroughly grounded in the underlying principles of democracy and should be instructed as to how these principles can be carried over into a democratic school. This means much more than a study of the Constitution of the United States. Some one has said that democracy cannot be learned where it is not lived. The curriculum, differentiation, class management, promotion, discipline, graduation, all these must be understood and interpreted in terms of democracy.

Here at present lies our greatest weakness, in my judgment, in the preparation of secondary-school teachers.

2. That every teacher, regardless of the subject taught should have a training in the social sciences, sufficiently wide to enable him to make a scientific approach to the solution of the many problems now confronting us.

Not academic freedom but a much wider social, political, and economic outlook, and a stronger scientific attitude are needed by the secondary-school teacher to-day. Bond issues,

¹New Hampshire and Idaho (unless certified by state institution) require an examination in state school law and program of studies or Course of Study. Wisconsin and Kansas still issue certificates on examination.

amortization charges, war debts, in their relation to tariffs, illustrate sufficiently what I mean.

3. That since English composition has to do primarily not with the production of literary essays but with the organization and expression of thought, and since the organization and expression of thought is a prime activity of every teacher, training in the art of teaching pupils how to organize and express thought should be part of the professional training of every prospective secondary-school teacher. Such training would go far to abolish much loose-jointed thinking on the part of both teachers and pupils which is now being countenanced in our high schools.

4. That we should more generally recognize the principle of a core curriculum in the professional training of our secondary-school teachers. State boards of education have a responsibility here, but the greater responsibility rests upon the teachers college.¹ It seems to me that the number of courses of education in teachers colleges has been needlessly multiplied. One institution listed during the current year 784 courses in education. To list them in my judgment is to condemn them. What we need is fewer but more "beefy" courses in education, and a more general recognition of the principle of the core curriculum.

5. That candidates for the teaching profession should be much more carefully selected by both state and private teacher training institutions, and since young teachers are very likely to teach as they have been taught, the prime consideration for the privilege of teaching the courses in the core curriculum should be a strong and able teaching personality.

6. Finally, that since the need for intelligent educational leadership is imperative, and since the field to be covered is so wide, five years of training beyond the secondary school, plus one year of cadet training with possibly a bare living wage, should be considered a minimum amount of time to be devoted to the training of secondary-school teachers.

¹The latest programs of some of the teachers colleges show a strong tendency in this direction.

At this juncture Principal H. V. Kepner of West High School, Denver, Colorado, invited the members to come to Denver to the mid-summer meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Mr. Harold R. Benjamin, assistant Dean of the School of Education, University of Minnesota, read the paper of Harl R. Douglass, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Minnesota. This paper was entitled, *Changes in Methods of Teaching Secondary Schools During the Past Three Hundred Years.*

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF METHOD

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(An Abridgement)

The written history of education is largely a story of school organization and curricula, of administrative control and financial support, of legislation, and of statistics. Descriptions of the process of instruction seem to be avoided entirely or given minor emphasis. Yet fortunately here and there in fragments, in biographical materials concerning the work of outstanding masters and in memoirs of former pupils, may be found materials for reconstructing some portions of the story of educational method.

The Latin Grammar School Period

Our Pilgrim forefathers were pious people, and it was inevitable that their secondary schools should be characterized by the spirit of severity, conformity, and obedience which was characteristic of their faith. In the Latin Grammar School, the master was supreme. Parents submitted their children to him in humble expectation of violent discipline. Life itself to these grim men was a matter of mental and physical hardship, partly self-willed. Better that a child's body should be bruised and his spirit broken than that his soul should be lost through indulgence in mortal pleasures. Punishments were not bestowed entirely, nor perhaps in large part, for infractions of discipline, but for the failure or inability to learn. While among the incentives to study employed were the hope of approval, the pride in achievement, and some confidence in the value of learning, the most dynamic and universal stimulant was fear of the wrath of the master.

With notable exceptions, the masters of the colonial period were even more than their successors of to-day primarily hearers of lessons rather than instructors. In truth, they did but little else than hear recitations, save deliver grief to those who learned not well or diligently.

In spite of the partiality towards punishment, order was not the order. Pupils were kept at unattractive and discouraging tasks, for which they had received little or no preparatory instruction, it being in fact thought good pedagogy to have them labor long in self-teaching. Discouraged and tired they sat at uncomfortable seats for the very large portion of the long school day of seven to nine hours, which obtained in those times, engaging in various activities to make life sufferable between short and infrequent recitations.

After a primitive fashion individual differences were not neglected. In fact, in most of the early schools, progress and recitations were entirely a matter of the individual who worked alone at his own rate and was called upon occasion sometimes with one or more other pupils, though usually by himself, to "back his book," which consisted in handing his book to his instructor and reciting to him. The adaptation of instruction to individual differences was little developed. There was, in fact, little instruction to adopt. The mediocre or slow child however did not suffer long. He was soon brow—and otherwise beaten into withdrawal. Even were he the normal pupil his way was not pleasant. The boy of parts was however, then as now, the joy and consolation of his teacher, who proudly ascribed to his powers of teaching the results of the boys inherited capacities and diligence.

It is not difficult for one to understand, even granting the high intellectual and religious determination of these self-willed exiles and in spite of the occasional master possessing true human leadership and understanding along with scholarship, that the Latin Grammar school with its classical curriculum and such wasteful methods, left more lasting scars upon the heart than learning upon the mind. It did not spread rapidly, nor become a permanent institution. Yet unfortunately it yielded, to plague secondary education of succeeding generations, a heritage of methods that have persisted in the blood through all these generations, though in slowly decreasing virulence.

The Academy Period.

The new institution, while naturally similar in some way to its parent, the Latin Grammar School, was also dissimilar in several important ways. The memory and drill method was

carried over to experience a partial surrender to those forces battling for understanding before memory. The question and answer method, however, had become in the early academy period almost the universal recitation procedure. Texts intended for school use were written in catechetical arrangement and the answers learned off with the questions as cues.

The perfectly logical reaction against a perfectly universal and stupid concentration upon the formal ability to repeat words, little understood if at all, was, no doubt, the result of several causes. The battle against verbalism made by Pestalozzi was certain to reach the secondary-school masters eventually, though delayed and in attenuated strength. The trend towards object teaching contributed its quota. A trend in this direction might well be expected as a natural concomitant or consequent of realism reaction against formal classicism in England, Scotland, Germany, and elsewhere, and the introduction of the numerous newer and practical subjects in science, English, social studies, vocational and other fields, subjects taught with a real view to use in life, rather than for personal cultivation and ornament alone.

The lecture or telling method, so little used in the Latin Grammar school and so much used in European secondary schools, began to play a somewhat larger part and with the development of classes, instruction began to find its way into every classroom along with recitation and unsupervised study. The use of visual materials, object teaching, and other means of stimulating vivid and clear learning experiences, given powerful acceleration by Comenius, Pestalozzi, and those whom they influenced, grew noticeably throughout the nineteenth century to bloom in full flower in the twentieth. The development and spread of science went far to popularize the idea of learning through sense impressions.

As schools became larger and pupils attended more regularly, class organization was effected. The monitorial system of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, fevered and abated, but served the very valuable purposes of demonstrating the possibility of educating a much larger proportion of young people and of demonstrating the possibilities of giving serious attention to improved methods of class management. In addition not to be minimized, it gave great impetus to this

classification of pupils, and to the idea of teaching groups as units instead of by individuals.

Homogeneous grouping began but got no further than beginnings until the latter part of this century, though as early as 1820, Gould reports the sectioning off after a few weeks of competition the best 12 or 15, the next best 12 or 15, and so on so that instruction may be better adapted to them.

In the colonial period prodigal and lavish attention had been given to the development of linguistic skills. In the academy of the nineteenth century its place in the sun was shared with a rapidly growing brother idol, the memorization of information. Learned definitions couched in impressive vocabulary and elaborate scientific classifications far beyond the needs, interests, and capacities of the pupils, along with historical details, absorbed the energies of teacher and pupil.

To be sure, it was claimed that the development of character, qualities of obedience, habits of persistence at difficult, unpleasant and meaningless tasks, were certain and would generalize and carry over into all walks of life. Much was made of this philosophy, which condoned the relentless tyranny of the masters and rationalized their failure to feel responsibility for the development or use of more challenging and interesting and more effective methods of instruction.

There were, it must not be overlooked, those forerunners of the modern doctrine of interest and effort who preached or practiced the theory that better results were obtained, if methods and materials could be adapted so as to arouse interest in the learning activity on the part of the learners without recourse to compulsion. These nonconformists, however, did not often record their views in print and we hear little about them other than casual reference to some master or some plan giving emphasis to interest. Though we are not permitted to know how numerous those who practise such principles actually were, it is certain that they were a pitiful minority.

Through the academy period, the use of fear, humiliation, and physical punishment persisted as a very important incentive to application, but in gradually diminishing degree, until by the beginning of the second half of the century, corporal punishment was used with few exceptions only for infractions

of authority and discipline, and sarcasm and humiliation for defects in achievement were beginning to be employed less frequently by the more temperate and better poised teachers.

Emulation and rivalry became more generally appealed to, though a small minority objected largely on the grounds of its effect on social attitudes. It became quite customary to rank pupils frequently in the order of their supposed achievement, to seat them accordingly, or to write their names upon blackboards in such order, and to award prizes and other recognitions of achievement.

In this period, following the organization of schools into classes, lectures were employed much more frequently, both in regular instruction and as extra-class intellectual activities. Lecturing was not prominent as a regular means of instruction, however, except in the sciences. They were employed quite frequently in connection with religious and moral instruction at daily chapel assemblies.

Instruction was constantly aimed at "filling the mind" and little effort was made to influence conduct more directly except as a "well-filled" and as a well-disciplined mind would properly govern behavior. Considerable incidental effort was expended in attempts to instill certain virtues, but these were confined largely to religious attitudes and to ideals which reinforced the prevailing philosophy of instruction—such as industry, persistence, patience, pride in thoroughness, and the like. Little attention was given to the generalization of these ideals in all walks of life.

Quite in contrast with earlier, crowded schools, not organized into classes, the later academy became a school of quiet. The buzz of mumbling voices was no longer characteristic of the classrooms and the study halls that developed as schools became larger and as the memorization of ideas tended to supercede verbatim memorization. In fact, growing out the same philosophy of discipline, the pin-drop room of the latter half of the nineteenth century became the ideal and approximately the type.

The typical academy and early high school was a small school and classes were usually small. Oral quizzing therefore made less important the giving of frequent written examinations and rendered less necessary the use of daily written

homework. Heavy teaching loads of six or seven classes a day precluded the expenditure of much time upon written work. Written examinations were employed quite universally, nevertheless, though more generally as periodic or final examinations over large units of subject matter. As was the case in the preparation for instruction, little time was spent in preparing examinations or in the study of their improvement. That was to be the contribution of the succeeding century.

The Transition.

The latter half of the nineteenth century marks the transition from the academy to the high school as the predominant and typical secondary school of the country. During this half century, a few trends in method should be noted. The continued relaxation of the application of corporal punishment to slow and unwilling youngsters was, no doubt, a result of the growth and spread of humanitarian ideas among the people generally. The individual method was by this time completely replaced by the class method. The general outline of instructional procedure has become well standardized and consisted of two phases. Class recitation and assignment, very largely nothing more than oral or written testing, was usually concluded with a hasty measuring of the dose for the morrow. Various methods of reciting were developed—the topical method, the Socratic method of questioning, the writing out of solutions to problems or answers to questions on the blackboard, used especially in mathematics and elementary foreign languages. The requirement of written assignments to be handed in developed noticeably in this period. There was a trend away from the extreme emphasis upon memorization of words, even though right up to the beginning of the present century there were many teachers who required the memorization not only of ideas, definitions, and other aggregations of words, little understood or not understood at all, but the verbatim memorization of textbook content even of exercise material for drill. With the increased number and pedagogical quality of secondary-school textbook and the continued inadequate preparation of teachers now needed in much larger numbers, it was but natural that little attention was given to the presentation and explanation of materials. Fallacious ideas as to the possibilities of developing virtues in the pupils by compelling

them to be self taught were still widely enough accepted to make such a practice respectable.

The other half of the organization of learning-teaching carried on in out of class periods was, and is now in many schools, a daily preparation of assigned lessons by the pupils, supervised only to the extent of insuring application and order. This period also saw the use of the formal Herbartian steps with their unfortunate abuses spread to many secondary schools for temporary reign.

The arguments of Herbart for character education were also ignored by those who a generation after his death resurrected his writings, even though it was in education for personal character and social morality and in preparing young people to live properly in organized society that he was primarily interested in. Both the elementary-school technicians and secondary-school subject matter specialists, as well as the leaders in pedagogical thinking, passed over what was more dear to Herbart and chose to select and emphasize the treasures of lesser fineness, namely, the basis for a device for the organization of instruction. Like those of the great supermen, who have founded new religions, the apostles and exploiters of Herbart's ideas seized upon the most concrete, distorted it from its original significance, and then proceeded to formalize and standardize it as a sort of ritual for all manner of learning situations. Success came to be judged more by the ability to shape every lesson into the procrustean mold rather than by the ability to teach by whatever methods seemed most effective in view of the materials to be learned and the learners to be taught.

This apparently immortal tendency to worship at the shrine of formalized routine and ceremony did much to pervert and divert the splendid contributions of Pestalozzi and Herbart and is still vigorous to-day as may be witnessed by the attempts of various individuals and their satellites and superficial converts to popularize recipes for formalized teaching techniques.

Modern Method.

The twentieth century has witnessed a many-sided and withering attack upon the old standard daily recitation lesson-

hearing concept of teaching. Unsuspected by the great mass of teachers who hail them as recent contributions, new developments are directly traceable to great leaders at least as ancient as Plato, but more directly and more heavily from Comenius, Rosseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and their contemporaries and disciples.

Chiefly under fire were the following features of nineteenth century heritage.

1. The failure to appreciate the importance of directing and making most effective out-of-class learning activities of the pupils.
2. The wastefulness of the daily lesson-hearing class recitation.
3. The inadequacy of the standard class method as a means of adopting instruction to differences among pupils in abilities, interests, and needs.
4. The unsocial training resulting from the individualistic pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher relationship and the relative lack of group coöperative activity in the recitation system.
5. The failure to correlate instruction around centers of application and interest in a life-like manner as in problems and projects.
6. The daily "spoon-feeding" assignment which did not adequately provide for pupil initiative and for the unification and correlation of various daily sections of the subject matter.
7. The indefiniteness of the conventional assignment and the inadequate preparation given pupils for effective study.
8. The inability to measure accurately and objectively the progress of the pupil.
9. The tendency to focus attention upon words rather than upon idea and meanings.
10. The failure of teachers to supplement the dry textual outlines with telling and with related reading.
11. The irrational overemphasis upon multitudinous petty facts, too numerous to learn and for the most part quickly forgotten.
12. The untoward effects of the harsh, tyrannical, fear-inspiring class methods upon mental hygiene and the development of personality.

Constructive outgrowths of the dissatisfaction with the old order has blossomed in profusion within a few decades. Beginning shortly after 1900 the supervised study in various movements has spread throughout the country, particularly since 1915. Much less time is given to recitation and much more attention to directing the study efforts of the pupils. Beginning with a double period of ninety minutes and the recite-study sequence, it is passing through a lengthened fifty-five to sixty minute period of flexible divisions to various forms of large unit assignments or "contracts."

The strictly individual relationship of teacher to pupil has given much ground to various types of more social procedures, several of which were stigmatized with the term "socialized recitation." More lately, the more dramatic types involving student chairmen have come to be used only as occasional devices, while the various forms of group discussion and coöperation study and work on projects has spread steadily in daily practice.

The development of the field of individual psychology, accelerated so vigorously by the contribution of mental tests and the concepts of mental age and the I. Q., has given tremendous impetus to developing better provisions for individual differences. Efforts to meet this need have given us scores of devices and plans, the value of which has shifted more recently from administrative plans such as the multiple track schemes, "double tillage," and other promotional devices, to instructional techniques such as indeterminate or differentiated assignments, adaptations of special assignments, questions, and other class exercises and responsibilities to individual interests and abilities. The opportunities of the study periods in supervised study for assistance according to the needs of individuals and suggestions for additional activities for the more able have been recognized more widely with greater experience.

The use of visual and auditory aids and other realia have developed beyond the dreams of the teacher of the nineteenth century. In addition to a more widespread use of the simpler things such as pictures on paper, maps, slides, objects, laboratory apparatus, and models, schools are to-day employing in large numbers, though far from universally, motion pictures and radio devices. The revolt from verbalism, breaking forth

sporadically since Comenius, has in the twentieth century really overturned the oppressors of understanding, and teachers are in numbers almost large enough to constitute a majority really addressing themselves seriously to the task of instruction.

The dreams of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and John Dewey of social and character education through the schools now seem nearer to reality than ever before, though they are far from realization. Nevertheless, the increasing tendency to interpret education in the light of increasing needs for social virtues is encouraging. The receding influency of college preparatory and disciplinary objectives couched in terms of subject matter information and skills, has made it possible for teachers to have at least a faint appreciation of the importance in education of ideal attitudes, interests, tastes, and social habits and concepts. These are matters no less of method than of materials. The increasing waste from crime, political dishonesty, and economic cannibalism have brought us face to face with the needs for these new values, and it is difficult to see how even school people can fail to see their significance.

Beginning about 1910 the spread of new ideas in making tests more valid and objective has passed through the stage of commercially distributed standard tests into that of locally constructed objective tests. This new development has at once been a blessing and a hampering influence upon teaching. While furnishing means of more accurate measurement by which teaching procedures may be better evaluated, tests have tended to become objectives rather than means, especially when employed to evaluate the efficiency of teachers and of schools.

Closely related to the improvement of testing has been the increased use of controlled experimentation as a means of evaluating techniques—strictly a modern development. This scientific approach to the problem of judging the merits of proposed procedures has not been as fruitful of definite conclusions as was hoped for ten or fifteen years ago. Yet it has thrown much light upon the relative efficacy of various plans in contributing to such educational outcomes as can be measured—chiefly information and subject matter skills. It constitutes a most promising improvement over the prevailing forensic approach and has already served to bring into serious

question the somewhat extravagant claims of the proponents of various new teaching plans or techniques.

All of these newer trends in teaching which characterize the twentieth century revolution emphasize pupil initiative and responsibility, the importance of experiencing success rather than failure as necessary to mental hygiene and the healthful development of personality. They respect the self-confidence and intellectual and emotional integrity of the individual.

They are also radical realism, "learning by doing," "all learning through sense impressions," "understanding before memorizing," and many other such expressions voiced in previous centuries, by the forerunners of the revolt, have become principles of practice as well as of theory to-day.

Through all these more recent developments in method, one may easily discern the trend toward more friendly, coöperative, sympathetic pupil-teacher relationship. Even in spite of the accretion of millions of pupils from the lower levels of economic status and intellectual ability, discipline has become less and less a crucial problem, a convincing testimonial to the new relationship between instructor and instructed.

The great advances in secondary-school method may be largely accounted for as a result of the increased attention to psychology and method as an essential in the training of secondary-school teachers. The establishment of departments of education in colleges and universities, formal requirements of minimum professional training, the development of many and increasingly better books on methods, the growth of groups, clubs, and organizations, local, regional, and national for the study and exchange of ideas on method, general and special, the development of special method journals—all these have sped up the contributions to method and the spread of new ideas.

Surely, we have come a long way in three hundred years in method in the secondary school. The cowed little boy who labored eight or nine hours a day in the old Latin Grammar school to puzzle out the English equivalent and constructions of Latin and Greek materials unintelligible to him, even in translation, who had no text or at best a poor thing pedagogically, and who learned only from a master familiar with no pedagogical principles but those of industry and fear, who

probably was not able even to hope for modern realia, sympathetic teaching, effective explanation, opportunities for self-expression, and such unheard of things, would require considerable time to recover from the bewilderment of transition to a modern American secondary school. Whether he would grow more rapidly in desired directions we cannot objectively prove. We may be certain that he would be happier and that school to him would not seem, as it did even in those days when childhood outside of school as well was given little recognition, a horrible business to be got through quickly.

Miss Annie C. Woodward, Teacher in the High School, Somerville, Massachusetts, read her paper, *A Teacher in the High School, Then and Now*.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER THEN AND NOW

ANNIE CARLETON WOODWARD

President, National Council of Administrative Women
in Education

Next to the child, the teacher is of the most vital importance to the school world. As far back as one can read for information you will find that the teacher is at the very heart of education. He is the nearest to the young people and the nearest to the home.

It is, therefore, most fitting at this time, when attention is being attracted to the three hundredth anniversary of secondary education, that consideration of the teacher be on your program.

From the colonial laws of Massachusetts I find that "when any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families, they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof to be able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the University." In the records of the town of Boston, under date of April 13, 1635, we find this entry in the handwriting of the venerable elder of the First Church, Thomas Leverett, "Likewise it was then generally agreed upon that our brother Philemon Pormort shall be interested to become schoolemaster for the teaching and nourtering of children with us." He accepted the trust, and was supported partly by donations of liberal friends of education, and partly by the income of a tract of land assigned to him at Muddy River. When Mr. Pormort ended his labors is not stated, but in 1660 is the following record: It is also agreed on that Mr. Woodmansey, the schoolmaster, shall have fiftye pound p, ann, for his Teaching ye Schollers, and his proportion to be made up by ratte." In 1666, "Mr. Dannel Henchman assist Mr. Woodmansey in the Grammar Schools and teach the children to wright the Yeare to begine the 4th of March, 65."

It is said of these men teachers that they had the right application of the great task before them, that of teaching. They were men blessed with Christian manliness and sterling worth, with religion a dominant element in their characters. While the sole aim of the high school was to prepare for college, the other schools had different purposes.

One reason given by our wise fathers for the education of the young was, that "Satan" had a "strong hold of ignorance," and the establishment of schools and general instruction would tend to counteract the influence of that "ould deluder."

Samuel Moody, thirty years a teacher, graduated from Harvard College as did many of the early instructors. It was said of him that he was a thorough Greek and Latin scholar, and prepared for college many a student who became celebrated in after life. Francis Gardner graduated from Harvard, and was an instructor for more than forty years. It is said that he probably fitted more pupils for college than any other teacher in New England. He prepared with great labor, a dictionary of the Latin language which has been extensively used in many high schools. He was another devoted and efficient teacher who secured the love and affection, not only by his pupils, but of scores of friends.

Even in this long ago teachers were dealing with the problem of discipline. Let me give you what they said, "We teachers, especially of Boston and Vicinity, are living in trying times. In the present excited state of public sentiment upon the subject God than to man, and remembering that but a few short years, at most, will pass away, ere we shall reach that better land where all unjust human judgments will be reversed, and righteous verdicts alone rendered." In another old book I found that "school discipline is to train up young people in the way in which they should go; in other words, to make them good men and women; to so train their minds, educate their hearts, and discipline all the faculties of their natures that they will become, in after years, blessings to themselves and to society."

In frequent places there were strong expressions as to the kind of person that should be employed as a teacher. This statement interested me very much, so I want you to hear it. "A teacher' character, his self-possession, watchfulness, general bearing, expression of the eye, tone of the voice, his sympathy, patience, cheerfulness, charity, are all effective instruments of discipline. He should be just; if possible, pre-eminently just; reasonable in all his requirements; never arbitrary, but always decided; gentle, but unyielding; firm, but mild; in short the more of the Christian virtues he can embody, the better disciplinarian he becomes. Love should be the

main element in the discipline of every school. A teacher who cannot secure the affections of a very large majority of his pupils, is unworthy of his position."

Perhaps one of the most celebrated of the early teachers in the writing school and high school was Ezekial Cheever who taught seventy years, making his school "famous in all the country." He became a high-school teacher at the age of fifty-six and bore a high reputation for learning among the colonists. Much learning was fostered by the severe disciplinarians. It is said of one that when the undiligent scholar failed in recitating he would be asked in no soft voice, "What is the reason for your failure, native stupidity or culpable negligence?" If the boy acknowledged his culpable negligence he was immediately flogged, while the one wise enough to lay the blame for his failure to his native stupidity would be let off with no more comment. Such were the days of the application of the rod. It has been said of some of our strongest pioneer leaders that "beneath an exterior of yielding effacement ran a streak of hardened steel. They never changed their mind." One of the teachers whose work is most highly commended was an ingenious soul. He conveyed an idea of how to get the most out of his boys, physically as well as mentally. In the rear of his home he had a garden which he was able to keep beautifully cultivated at no expense to himself. His system was devised on the basis that it was a reward of merit. Light-hearted boys would weed and hoe in the hottest of days, prepare and carry wood for his fireplace as well as many times even bottling his cider.

After years of leadership by the men teachers it was deemed possible for women to teach in the high schools as they had done very well in the dame schools and writing schools. With more preparation it was found that they could teach the upper grades. A published criticism states that, "A man's personality as a teacher counts. A woman teacher has no personality; therefore, a man teacher should be paid a good deal more." Elsewhere it is written, "The women teachers with big pay do not marry. They save their money and leave it to the universities that have enuff." Fancy women teachers saving their money? and especially for the purpose of endowing universities. However, one cannot say that there is a more worthy cause.

Some of you will be interested to note a statement of later date which reads, "Women are equal to men in teaching, and superior to them in forming the tastes and manners of their pupils. Few members of our school boards would dissent from this opinion, and yet the compensation given to women bears no comparison with that given to men." Would our present school boards agree with this statement? There have been many evidences of progress in our educational system,—we look for one in this direction.

In the census of 1870 it appeared that there were two hundred thousand teachers in the public schools of the United States, and of these one hundred and nine thousand were women. The proportion of men and women was about equal then. Nine years later in Massachusetts, according to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education, there were one thousand one hundred eighteen male, and seven thousand three hundred and ninety female teachers in the public schools,—the former receiving the average of \$75.64 and the latter \$33.04 per month. In other words there were six times as many women getting less than half as much as the men. Has this change been made because our school boards believe that women are "superior in forming the tastes and manners" of their young people or because they wish to save money?

Teacher preparation always has been and always will be a great need, not only to obtain the subject matter, methods of teaching, and practice teaching, but to have developed a fine character, a high sense of public duty, and a loyal professional spirit. "As is the teacher, so is the school," and so "as competent teachers cannot have bad schools, the incompetent cannot have good ones."

Teachers to-day are fortunate because they can attend summer sessions at college and universities, take courses during the year, or attend excellent training schools. Many opportunities are open for their advancement and the progressive teacher seeks it because she wants to become professionally trained, skilled in the technic of teaching, possessed of sufficient scholarship to have a philosophy of education and an appreciation of the meaning of professional ethics.

On the whole, the teacher of to-day is better trained, better equipped, better supervised, and more efficient than the

teacher of yesterday. Her successor in the future will be better still. The public schools of our country shall not go backward.

And to you teachers of to-day,—Love, faith, and patience, —these must be thy graces, and in thine own heart let them first keep school.

THE FIFTH GENERAL SESSION

The fifth meeting of the convention of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was called to order by the president, Mr. Allen, at 1:25 P. M. in the Vernon Room of Haddon Hall.

Superintendent W. W. Haggard of Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois, read and explained the amended constitution. The report was accepted and the constitution was adopted.

Principal A. E. MacQuarrie of Washburn High School of Minneapolis, Minnesota, read the following statement and moved that the resolution be adopted.

One of the most effective and enriching phases of the teaching of social science in the American high schools has been the intelligent use of the daily newspaper and the current periodical.

The repeal of liquor legislation has been followed by the lowering of standards by publishers and the acknowledgment by the heads of great advertising bureaus that the virgin field of youth is to be exploited for liquor advertising profit. I am told by unimpeachable authority that nothing will be barred in the advertisers' effort to break down the inhibitions of youth and build up a sales demand for booze. Love of physical fitness and fair play are to give way to false sophistication and cheap smartness.

Aroused by the effrontery of those formulating the campaign and disgusted by those publications who for profits are willing to open their columns to the most vicious campaign ever directed against youth, I wish to present the following resolution and move its adoption. If approved by this organization, I ask that it be submitted to the Department of Superintendence and all affiliated organizations to register their approval and coöperation.

Resolved: That we, the members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, mindful of our responsibility to the millions of youth entrusted to our care do adopt the following resolution:

1. Every member of this organization is urged to do his part to protect our youth against the proposed liquor advertising campaign.

2. That we exclude all publications containing liquor advertising from use in our high schools.

3. That we call attention of our public-spirited and American-minded citizens to the viciousness and unfairness of an advertising program that for profit would destroy the most valuable product of American education, the character of our youth.

Amended to refer to the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals. Amendment carried and the resolution was referred to the Executive Committee.

The President, Mr. Allen, then introduced the chairman of the session, Principal H. P. Miller of the High School of Atlantic City. The chairman presented Mr. Thomas H. Briggs, who read his report of the Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education.

THIRD ANNUAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ORIENTATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

THOMAS H. BRIGGS (Chairman)
Teachers College, Columbia University

Since its latest report of progress made to you a year ago at Cleveland, your Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education has held two meetings, each five days in length. At the former the revised discussion of the issues was considered, and it was decided to put this out as a tentative report for the primary purpose of securing criticisms and practical suggestions from the field, especially as to the soundness and completeness of the presentation and as to means of implementation.

Consequently, after the chairman of the Committee had spent practically all of his summer vacation in editing the reports, an edition of 1500 copies was printed, but not published, for distribution early in the fall. Partly in response to the invitation issued at this meeting a year ago and partly from extensive correspondence later, some sixty groups of especially interested and competent people undertook to discuss the report and to submit their reactions before the middle of March. Some returns have already been received. All of the criticisms and suggestions will be carefully considered; and they are expected to be of material help in the final revision.

Since the distribution of these tentative reports there has been a steady flow of requests for copies. Some have wished them for their own professional information, some for aid in solving problems of moment, and some for use in the training of teachers or administrators. Most of these requests unfortunately had to be denied, partly because this edition was intended for the very definite purpose of securing criticisms that would aid the Committee, and partly because the limited edition was promptly exhausted. All who in response to the invitation issued here last year requested copies for use with discussion groups were supplied.

At the meeting of the Committee held at Lake Placid in October the special functions of secondary education were dis-

cussed. Subsequently, following the plan used for developing the issues, each function was assigned to one member of the Committee who undertook to give it special study and to draft a tentative report incorporating the ideas and agreements expressed by all members in the previous discussion. These tentative reports will be discussed, after being considered individually beforehand, at the April meeting, which will be held at Asheville.

The wisdom of the plan to hold two extended meetings a year at some place entirely away from distractions of normal or of abnormal kinds has been abundantly justified. Thus uninterrupted discussions can be carried on day and night, and full consideration of every pertinent point is assured. The members of the Committee have all been faithful and highly helpful. In addition to the time required for attendance on the meetings, they have devoted many days and nights to study of the problems before the Committee and to writing up the parts of the report assigned to them.

The handicap to the plan is that every member of the Committee is recognized as of such competence that he has been drafted to other duties outside those of his regular job. A mere enumeration of their outside obligations would be astounding. Most of these are too important to be refused and too pressing to be procrastinated. However, no one wishes to give up membership on a committee that is attempting so fundamental a contribution to secondary education. In consequence of the pressure, Mr. Paul Diederich, of the Ohio State University, has been engaged to act as secretary at the Asheville meeting and subsequently to edit for later publication the reports submitted there.

The Committee will, unless unforeseen complications arise, complete within the three years the task that is assumed. This it will do well within the original appropriation, probably without using any of the funds so generously appropriated by this Department, and have a reserve to pay for at least a part, if not all, of the publication of the reports. Although it will complete its task on time, no one should expect it to solve all the problems of secondary education. There will still be much left to do. But the reports should make an important contribution to the theoretical foundations on which the future structure will be built.

We are and should properly be grateful to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for the financial aid that has made the work of this Committee possible. But munificent as the grant was, it is much smaller in its total than the cost of the time contributed by the members and granted by their employers. I wish thus formally to recognize and to acknowledge the contribution made by boards of schools and of universities in permitting the extended absences from duties for which the members of the Committee are employed that they might share in this important piece of work. Every member returns to his job from each meeting with better insight and renewed competence for whatever professionally he may be called on to do.

Unless expectations are defeated, we are at the beginning of tremendously large projects both by the Government and by private groups for improving the care and education of youth. Without contributions such as your Committee is attempting to make these projects cannot be substantially based. It is peculiarly fortunate that you made possible this work which was opportune in time and will, we hope, be highly valuable in results.

The Chairman, with an appropriate story of elephant and peanuts, presented Elbert K. Fretwell, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, who read his paper, *The School and Democratic Society*.

EDUCATION AND DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

ELBERT K. FRETWELL

Professor of Education

Teachers College, Columbia University

Out in Missouri when I was a boy, a neighbor of our family had a three-year-old chestnut-sorrel colt. This colt by breeding and by action in the pasture showed the possibility of making a real five-gaited saddle horse. As a result, instead of sending this colt with the other three-year-olds to plough in the fields, this neighbor sent him to Mexico, Missouri, to the best of all the saddle horse trainers with the result that our neighbor had a champion saddle horse. He put the colt to practicing under expert leadership what he was capable of becoming.

The idea that I want to emphasize to-day is a familiar one to members of this association: If you want to develop qualities of democratic citizenship, arrange a favorable situation for practicing these qualities and make the practice emotionally and intellectually satisfying to the one doing the practicing.

Education, as certain of our psychologists have pointed out, is based on man's wants and it is the business of education to improve these wants and to improve man's ability to satisfy these improved wants. "Democracy," as one of the ablest of our philosophers pointed out at a meeting of this organization eleven years ago, "may be defined as a social organization that aims to promote coöperation among its members and with other groups on the basis of mutual recognition of interests." It is the privilege, the purpose, and the business of education in a democracy to fit people to live in a democracy and at the same time to make democracy a fit place in which to live. Self-governing is inherent in the scheme of a democracy. "Self-government as an administrator," as Carl Schurz long ago pointed out, "is subject to criticism for many failures but it is impossible to overestimate self-government as an educator."

At the present time we are reminded on the right that it is the business of education to reflect society and exhorted on the left to have the school reform society. Now most people probably have a sufficient sense of social responsibility not to try to burn down the house which they, on their own applica-

tion, are engaged to plan, construct, improve, and protect. Whatever the conditions of life at any time, probably every thoughtful teacher or parent sees, or has seen, the school as a means of a better to-morrow for the pupil, son or daughter, and for society. "That learning may not be buried in the graves of the fathers" has been an ideal for the school for nearly three hundred years. The breadth of learning, or learnings, has been increased but the ideal remains that the hope of a democratic society lies in an intelligent people educated so as to have a sense that individual opportunity and social responsibility are one and inseparable.

Between these conflicting ideas that the school shall reflect society and that the school shall reform society, possibly there may be another idea. There seems to be general acceptance of the belief that the pupils in our secondary schools are citizens of the school now, that they have rights and duties, privileges and obligations now, that the best proof we have that they will be good citizens to-morrow is that they are good citizens to-day. There seems to be a psychological basis for training up a child in the way he should go.

If the school wishes to reflect the best in present society and utilize this best of the present as one means of building a better to-morrow, the school should recognize itself as a social organization. In promoting coöperation among its members on the basis of a mutual recognition of interests, the school frequently is, and always can be, an improvement on the society that some persons wish the school to reflect. If the school is to have any real effect on society, it is going to have this effect through the ways its pupils think, feel and act to-day and to-morrow. The school as a social unit should organize itself so that it can govern itself. This idea is not new. Sixteen years ago the president of this association in his opening address, said: "I believe it is supremely important that principals and teachers recognize student participation (in government) as a principle underlying proper training in democratic thought, feeling, and action and not as a device for getting desirable work done." There should be in the school of course the subject matter and the teaching to the end that the pupil can know the history, the facts, and the theories of social organizations taught as accurately and dispassionately as possible. (It is probably impossible to prevent indoctrination. So

far as I know, in some five or six years of formal graduate study I cannot recall a class in which any energetic instructor failed to attempt "to instruct in learning, principles or doctrines," that is, to indoctrinate.)

Knowledge, subject matter, seems not enough. The pupil desires to share increasingly in directing himself. Education begins with what the individual wants to do. It is generally accepted that the pupil shall share increasingly in selecting the time, place, amount, and character of his knowledge-work. It is not so generally accepted that he shall share increasingly in having a favorable opportunity in a social group to participate in the government of himself and his group. He should have a chance with expert guidance to share in planning the group life in school as a means of his own education to-day and so that he can plan and have the technique for executing his plans in his to-morrow. As teachers, we have long been recognized as having the ability to suppress undesirable traits, but we have much to learn in how to bring out the positive virtues.

This living, planning, acting to-day on the part of the pupil in building for to-morrow is not limited to any special phase of the school. It can exist in such activities as: selecting, organizing and assigning subject matter and method of work, in making class assignment, in questioning and testing, in organizing traffic, home-room guidance, planning assemblies, selecting leaders; in setting up and carrying on schemes of pupil participation in government and in community contacts. While the extra-curriculum activities because of their freedom have many advantages in this field, these activities have no monopoly on this living to-day so as to insure a better to-morrow. It should be recognized that chaos resulting from lack of organization is not freedom. It seems that it is possible in some so-called enlightened schools for the pupils to get in each other's way so much that there is no freedom. There is little chance for freedom without organization.

There is need for planning to develop the organization that serves the needs of the group. It is here that the pupil should be engaged in planning and executing plans for the common good as a means of his own education. It will be necessary to work out and put into effective practice ways which at the time are best ways for accomplishing desired ends. If the pupil is whole-heartedly engaged in such activities, he will

quickly learn that the social organization that he helps work out, exists to serve his and his fellows' needs. He is sure to resent any idea that he exists primarily to serve the needs of the organization he has helped build. It is but a step from this understanding of social organization to the idea that the state exists for man and not man for the state.

A school that is well organized so as to promote individual and group freedom is sure to have engaged both pupils and teachers in group planning for the common good. This planning and the following executing is the very essence of education. Such a school has a home-room organization where a teacher and a relatively small group of pupils work out their common life in the school. Here is planning for the individual, for the small group, for the class, and for the whole school. Here is helpful guidance by the home-room sponsor, the teacher, or by pupils who know, for those who have not yet learned how to proceed in selecting what to study, how to study, how to meet school regulations, and generally how to live and act as a citizen of the home-room and of the school.

This school that engages its citizens in planning for the common good will have some scheme of merging all these small home-room groups into a whole school organization. This will probably be some form of a pupil-teacher council composed of elected representatives from all of the smaller groups. This all-school organization with expert guidance can receive ideas from the smaller groups, refer ideas to these groups for discussion or decision. This two-way channel must be kept open if this form of organization is to succeed. There will be committees for traffic in and out of the building, for assemblies, in fact for all phases of the school life, but all forms of pupil participation in government head up in the pupil-teacher council.

In such a school as we are considering there will be clubs for all pupils who desire membership. No matter how modern, how progressive the school, there is a healthy desire on the part of the pupils for an organization of their own. If this opportunity for belonging to clubs is denied to the school, the pupils outside of the school will organize clubs of their own. If all the so-called extra-curriculum activities of to-day were curricularized, by to-morrow or the next day youth would move out to a new frontier and set up, secretly or openly, or-

ganizations of its own. The fraternity problem in high schools is due originally not to some perversity of youth but to the absence of a socially constructive program on the part of the school or to the idea that the whole school is made up of what is formally taught and tested and on which promotion is based.

At the present time youth needs more than anything else emotional stability. This stability comes from belonging to a group where he is wanted and to which he can render service. Outside of the school this group is ideally the home; inside the school it is usually the club.

This school that is learning, or has learned, how to plan its group life, has a school assembly that is interesting, instructive and emotionally satisfying. Here the finest achievements of the school, or of its individuals, or groups, are recognized and celebrated. Here is presented the school's best music in its various forms. In assembly are found the finest products of class or club. Problems affecting the welfare of the whole school are discussed. The whole assembly is conducted with dignity. Contrary as it may be to the opinions of some of us, youth likes, respects real dignity. Assemblies should be beautiful in conception, beautiful in detail, and emotionally satisfying.

The commencements, like the assembly, will present the finest achievements of the school and especially of the senior class. Commencements, like assemblies, will grow out of the life of the school.

School publications, whether curriculum or extra-curriculum, will reflect the school at its best. The newspaper will help the school to know itself and help the community to understand the school. This school will not expect its pupils to get out a publication for which it does not provide the necessary training on an educative basis.

Perhaps a sufficient number of the school's extra-curriculum activities have been cited to indicate what a school can do in this one phase of its life to be "a social organization that aims to promote coöperation among its members and with other groups on the basis of a mutual recognition of interests"; hence, a democracy.

The high-school principals have many difficulties in developing this democratic high school. For example, practi-

cally all high-school principals desire teachers who have had definite educative training for advising some one or more of the school's extra-curriculum activities. Only about one-fourth of the teachers' colleges that are producing these high school teachers are attempting to provide this phase of the training that high-school principals demand. Though important, this is but one of the difficulties.

This school, organized for freedom, is a collective body without being collectivistic. The whole school and all the members of the school are trying to think up ways for improving the school, to find ways for contributing to the common good. Pupils and teachers are trying to learn how to live in a democratic society and to make this society, in school to-day and out of school to-morrow, a fit place in which to live.

The real business of the school is not to reflect society though to a great extent this reflecting will take place. Nor is it the business of the school to build a new society. However, through the thinking, feeling, and acting of the members of the school we work for improvement of society. We strive through the school to help realize increasingly the ideals of democratic society. The real business of the school is to help the individual and the group link up individual and group opportunity and social responsibility. The best proof that the pupil will have the knowledge, the attitude, and the skill to build a better society to-morrow lies in the fact that, with the right kind of guidance, but not too much, he is practicing here and now the qualities of a good citizen in the democratic society of which he is a living part.

Chairman Miller interrupted the program for an interlude of music by a piano trio of young ladies from Atlantic City High School.

The chairman then turned the gavel back to the President, Mr. Allen, who introduced Mr. M. R. Robinson of *The Scholastic*, who made a brief report of the Publicity Committee of the Tercentenary Celebration.

Mr. R. L. Sandwick, member of the Finance Committee, and Principal of Deerfield-Shields Township High School, Highland Park, Illinois, gave some excerpts from the financial report and made some comments. Moved and seconded that Mr. Sandwick's report be adopted. Carried.

President Allen asked for the report of the Nominating Committee. The chairman of this committee, Principal J. D. Hull, of Springfield, Missouri, made the following report:

MEETING OF NOMINATING COMMITTEE FEB. 26, 1935

Present:

Wm. H. Bristow, Pennsylvania—Middle States Assoc.
 Robert H. Earley, Connecticut—New England Assoc.
 Paul E. Elicker, Massachusetts—New England Assoc.
 L. A. Fulwider, Illinois—North Central Assoc.
 V. M. Hardin, Missouri—North Central Assoc.
 J. D. Hull, Missouri—North Central Assoc.
 Theodore Kambour, Vermont—New England Assoc.
 M. E. Ligon, Kentucky—Southern Assoc.
 A. E. MacQuarrie, Minnesota—North Western Assoc.
 Louis E. Plummer, California—California Assoc.
 Milton D. Proctor, Maine—New England Assoc.
 W. L. Spencer, Alabama—Southern Assoc.
 L. H. Strough, New York—Middle States Assoc.
 John H. Tyson, Pennsylvania—Middle States Assoc.
 Neal M. Wherry, Kansas—North Central Assoc.

Mr. Hull was elected chairman.

Mr. Elicker was appointed secretary.

After considerable discussion it was decided that merit with some attention to geographical distribution should determine the basis for nominations, rather than the succession of officers from one vice-presidency to another and to presidency. The merits of system of succession, however, were recognized, but should not, ever, become mandatory for a nominating committee.

The following nominations were made by unanimous action of the committee:

President—Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine.

First Vice-President—Willard N. Van Slyck, Principal High School, Topeka, Kansas.

Second Vice-President—M. G. Jones, Principal High School, Huntington Beach, California.

The two members of the Executive Committee:

K. J. Clark, Principal Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama.

Oscar Granger, Principal Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pa.

Respectfully submitted,

PAUL E. ELICKER, *Secretary,*
of Nominating Committee.

On motion of Chairman Hull the report was adopted.

President Allen then tendered the gavel to President-elect Lyseth, who pledged his best endeavors to the advancement of the Department.

President-elect returned the gavel to President Allen. He at once recognized Mr. E. D. Martin, who invited the Department to meet in Houston, Texas, in 1936.

Principal H. P. Miller proffered a vote of thanks to those who worked to make this program a success. This suggestion was carried by a unanimous vote.

President Allen invited the incoming officers to platform.

President Allen then adjourned the session.

(The papers presented at the Research session will be printed in Bulletin No. 56, April, 1935.)

CONSTITUTION
OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this organization shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this department shall be the advancement of secondary education by providing a clearing house of discussion bearing upon the problems of administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by upholding acceptable standards, by fostering professional ideals, and by formulating a working philosophy of secondary education.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1—The membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of two classes: active and associate.

SECTION 2—All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association and who are engaged in administering supervision, and teaching secondary education, upon payment of the annual fee of \$2.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 3—Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals, by the payment of the annual fee of \$1.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 4—All other persons interested in secondary education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$2.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5—Only active members shall have the privilege of voting or holding office.

SECTION 6—All members, both active and associate, shall receive the publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—The elective officers of the Department shall be a president, a first vice-president, and a second vice-president.

SECTION 2—The president and the vice-presidents shall hold office for one year.

SECTION 3—The executive committee shall consist of the officers, the retiring president, and three other members each elected for a term of three years. At the first election, one member shall be elected for only one year and one other for two years. The executive committee shall be representative of junior high schools, the several types of senior high schools, and junior colleges.

SECTION 4—The executive secretary shall be selected by the executive committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the executive committee.

ARTICLE V

SECTION 1—The president shall, sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, ask each of the state associations of the Department of Secondary-School Principals to name a representative who shall then be appointed by the president as a member of the nominating committee.

SECTION 2—Eighteen members of the nominating committee shall constitute a quorum with not fewer than three from each of the following regional associations of colleges and Secondary Schools: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Any lack in the representation herein provided shall be filled by nomination from the floor.

SECTION 3—The nominating committee so constituted shall meet following its selection and after electing a chairman, shall prepare a list of candidates for the several offices, to be submitted to the Department at its final business meeting.

ARTICLE VI—FINANCE

The president shall appoint, subject to the approval of the executive committee, two members who shall, with the executive secretary, constitute a board of finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Department, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Department. Bills shall be paid by the executive secretary upon the authorization of the president.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting shall be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the executive committee of the Department.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE VIII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meetings. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the executive committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

ARTICLE IX

Robert's Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Department.

NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY MEETING OF THE COUNCIL

Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey,
Sunday, February 24, 1935.

The National Council met at 6 P. M.

Present: Members Allen, MacQuarrie, Mathews, McDaniel, McKown, Plummer, and Church. Absent: Members Brooks, Kepner, and Struthers.

On motion of member Allen, second MacQuarrie, the resignation of Alice Ball Struthers was accepted.

The terms of the following members of the National Council close: Brooks, Kepner and Plummer; also the unexpired two-year term of member Struthers.

The following ballot was prepared and approved:

BALLOT

COUNCIL MEMBERS

of the

NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Vote for only four

Mark out all others

- ☐ **W. L. SPENCER**
Supervisor of Secondary Education, Alabama
- ☐ **JOSEPH ROEMER**
Director of Demonstration School,
Peabody School for Teachers, Nashville
- ☐ **LOUIS E. PLUMMER***
Principal, Union High School and
Junior College, Fullerton, California
- ☐ **RODNEY D. MOSIER**
Principal, Senior High School, Uniontown, Pa.
- ☐ **H. V. KEPNER***
Principal, West High School, Denver, Colorado
- ☐ **H. B. JOHNSON**
Principal, Senior High School, Eugene, Oregon
- ☐ **FLOYD E. HARSHMAN**
Principal, High School, Nutley, N. J.

- ☐ V. M. HARDIN
Principal, Reed Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri
- ☐ OSCAR GRANGER
Principal, Haverford Township High School,
Upper Darby, Pa.
- ☐ ROBERT BURNS
Principal, High School, Cliffside Park, N. J.
- ☐ R. L. BUTTERFIELD
Principal, Benjamin Franklin High School, Rochester, N. Y.
- ☐ L. W. BROOKS*
Principal, Wichita High School North, Wichita, Kansas

*Present members of Council.

On motion of member MacQuarrie, second Mathews, the Council adjourned to meet Monday, February 25, at 12:30 P. M. Carried.

MEETING OF THE COUNCIL

Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey,
Monday, February 25, 1935.

The Council met at 12:30 P. M.

Present: Members Allen, Kepner, MacQuarrie, Mathews, McDaniel, McKown, Plummer and Church. Absent: Member Brooks.

Moved by Member McKown, second Plummer, that a committee be appointed by the President to investigate the manufacture of the emblems and report to the Council. Carried.

Moved by Member Allen, second Mathews, that all high-school principals be circularized warning such of pseudo honor societies. Carried.

Moved by Member MacQuarrie, second Allen, that state chairmen of promotion be appointed by the several members of the Council. Carried.

On motion of Member MacQuarrie, second Kepner the Council adjourned to meet Tuesday, February 26 at 5:00 P. M. Carried.

MEETING OF THE COUNCIL OF THE NATIONAL
HONOR SOCIETY.

Tuesday, February 26, 1935.

The National Council met in Haddon Hall at 5:00 P. M.
Present: Members Kepner, MacQuarrie, Mathews, McDaniel,
McKown, Plummer and Church. Absent: Members Allen,
Brooks and Roemer. By unanimous vote member McDaniel
was elected president; and Member Church was elected sec-
retary.

The assignment of states to members for the purpose of
promotion was discussed and approved.

On motion of member Plumber, second MacQuarrie, the
returns of the referendum on the subject of state conventions
were viewed as so slight in majority as to preclude the an-
nouncement of a definite policy in regard to them. Carried.

It was agreed that at the next February meeting a dis-
cussion panel should be on the program.

On motion of member MacQuarrie the Council adjourned.

AUDITOR'S REPORT

For the year ended December 31, 1934

February 16, 1935.

To the Finance Committee,
Department of Secondary-School Principals,
National Education Association.

Dear Sirs:

At your request I have audited the records of Mr. H. V. Church, Treasurer of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, located at 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, for the year ended December 31, 1934, and I hereby submit my report, together with the following exhibits and schedules:

Exhibit A—Condensed Statement of Receipts and Disbursements for the year ended December 31, 1934.

Exhibit B—Balance Sheet as of December 31, 1934.

Exhibit C—Statement of Profit and Loss for the year ended December 31, 1934.

Schedule 1—Statement of Securities Owned as of December 31, 1934.

*Exhibit A*DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONCondensed Statement of Receipts and Disbursements
for the year ended December 31, 1934

Balance of cash on hand January 1, 1934	\$ 1,096.56
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Received during year:	
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Dues	\$ 4,885.59
Sale of bulletins	323.71
Sale of blanks	629.33
Honor Societies	34,485.23
Consumers' Research	405.50

Interest on bonds and securities	1,129.21
Securities called	3,754.00
Carnegie Endowment Grant	3,000.00
Sale of magazines	507.10
Insurance premiums	5,954.86

Total cash receipts	<u>\$55,074.53</u>
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	<u>\$56,171.09</u>
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Disbursed during year:

Postage	\$ 70.60
Printing	61.13
Refunds	47.86
Express and drayage	3.04
Consumers' Research	283.50
Magazines	252.80
Safety deposit box rental	6.60
Miscellaneous	10.95
Honor Societies	29,309.97
Bulletins	2,751.45
Conventions	613.40
Carnegie Commission	3,440.78
Insurance	5,870.65
Bonds purchased	11,393.18

Total cash disbursements	<u>\$54,115.91</u>
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Balance of cash on hand December

31, 1934:

Cash in bank	\$ 2,047.02
Petty cash	8.16 \$ 2,055.18

Balance of cash on hand at January 1, 1934 was accepted as correct, having been verified in connection with the audit of the year 1933 and certified by the First National Bank, Chicago, Illinois as on hand December 31, 1933.

All cash received was supported by duplicate records, numbered consecutively and showing from whom received and for what purpose. Amounts were distributed to columns headed dues, honor society, interest, etc. Duplicate receipts were checked as to amounts and distribution, and all numbers

were accounted for. Deposits to the First National Bank, Chicago, Illinois, showed that all funds received were deposited regularly except for small items of cash or currency which were placed in a petty cash fund. The total placed in this fund during the year under audit amounted to \$269.76 and this was accounted for by small cash disbursements supported by requisitions duly signed, or by deposits to the bank.

Disbursements are made by check except for small cash disbursements from the petty cash fund, amounting during the year under audit to \$206.55. All disbursements, whether by cash or check, are supported by requisitions signed by both the president and the treasurer. Original requisitions are attached to cancelled checks together with other data supporting payment, and filed in the office of the Department. Duplicate requisitions are retained by the president until the end of the year and then turned over to the finance committee to be used by the auditor in checking disbursements.

All data described above was test-checked by the auditor and seemed to prove that disbursements were properly authorized, and were made to the persons and for the purposes set out in the records.

To prove the balance of cash on hand in the First National Bank, Chicago, Illinois at December 31, 1934, a certificate was obtained from the Bank. This certificate stated the balance to be \$2,079.33. Five checks totalling \$32.31 were outstanding at December 31, 1934 and deducting this total from the balance certified to by the bank leaves \$2,047.02, the balance of cash on hand in the First National Bank as shown by the books.

The balance of \$8.16 was verified in connection with the examination of the petty cash fund.

*Exhibit B*DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Balance Sheet—December 31, 1934

ASSETS

Cash in bank	\$ 2,047.02	
Petty cash	8.16	\$ 2,055.18
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Bills receivable		\$ 741.88
Inventories:		
Bulletins	14,907.80	
Supplies:		
Honor Society	2,990.77	
Department	448.33	18,346.90
<hr/>		
Securities at par:		
Real Estate loans	\$26,500.00	
Public Utility bonds	3,000.00	
Tax warrants	556.34	
U. S. Liberty Loan 4 $\frac{1}{4}$'s	3,000.00	
U. S. Treasury 4 $\frac{1}{4}$'s	4,000.00	
U. S. Treasury 3 $\frac{1}{4}$'s	5,000.00	
H. O. L. C. 3's	7,000.00	
H. O. L. C. 2 $\frac{3}{4}$'s	2,825.00	51,881.34
<hr/>		
Furniture and fixtures (net of depreciation)		308.17
<hr/>		
Total assets		\$77,333.47

LIABILITIES AND NET WORTH

Bills payable		\$ 644.26
Net Worth January 1, 1934.....	\$63,387.16	
Add-Profit for year 1934 (Exhibit C)....	9,302.05	72,689.21
<hr/>		
Total liabilities and net worth.....		\$73,333.47

Referring to Exhibit B, cash in bank and in the petty cash fund have been commented on in connection with the statement of cash receipts and disbursements in Exhibit A.

Bills receivable of \$741.88 are supported by orders on hand December 31, 1934 for which payment had not been received. Most of these bills had been paid before the audit was made.

The inventories as shown were accepted as correct without verification by the auditor. Mr. Church stated that they were compiled by actual count and valued at cost.

Securities were examined at the vault of the University State Bank in the presence of Mr. Church and Mr. Reavis. They were checked against a schedule previously prepared from the records. All were found to be present and to correspond as to numbers and amounts with the schedule.

At the suggestion of the auditor for the preceding year, Mr. Church set up an inventory of office furniture and fixtures at December 31, 1933. Annual depreciation of 10% on everything which is depreciated at the rate of 5% per year, was deducted from the opening balances and all additions were valued at cost.

The bills payable of \$644.26 were all paid during January 1935.

The profit for the year 1934 of \$9,302.05 shown in the net worth section of the balance sheet is analyzed in the statement of profit and loss shown in Exhibit C on the following page.

Exhibit C

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Statement of Profit and Loss for the year ended December 31, 1934

	<i>Loss</i>	<i>Profit</i>
<i>Honor Societies</i>	\$35,227.11	
Less—Expense:		
Inv. Jan. 1.....	\$ 2,032.81	
Add—		
Exp. for year..	29,678.42	
	<hr/>	
	\$31,711.23	

Less—			
Inv. Dec. 31....	2,990.77	28,720.46	\$ 6,506.65
<hr/>			
Dues		4,885.59	
Less—Refunds ..		29.00	4,856.59
<hr/>			
Blanks			629.33
Magazines		507.10	
Less—Expense ..		376.55	130.55
<hr/>			
Consumer's			
Research		405.50	
Less—Expense ..		283.50	122.00
<hr/>			
Bulletins		323.71	
Less—Refunds ..		18.86	
<hr/>			
		304.85	
Less—Cost:			
Inv.—Jan. 1.....	14,925.50		
Add—Exp. for			
year	2,751.45		
<hr/>			
	17,676.95		
Less—			
Inv. Dec. 31....	14,907.80	2,769.15	\$ 2,464.30
<hr/>			
Carnegie Endow-			
ment		3,000.00	
Less—Paid Out..		3,440.78	440.78
<hr/>			
Insurance		5,954.86	
Less—Paid Out..		6,079.05	124.19
<hr/>			
Conventions			613.40
Interest received..			1,274.21
Miscellaneous			
expense:			
Depreciation		21.66	
Postage		70.60	
Printing		61.13	

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Express and drayage	3.04	
Safety deposit box.....	6.60	
Miscellaneous	10.95	
Exp. on bonds pur.....	568.18	742.16
<hr/>		
<i>Dept. Supplies</i> —Inv. Jan. 1..	280.78	
Inv. Dec. 31	448.33	167.55
<hr/>		
<i>Net profit for year</i> (Exhibit B)	9,302.05	
<hr/>		
	\$13,686.88	\$13,686.88

In closing I wish to state that the records of your secretary-treasurer, Mr. H. V. Church, which I examined, are neatly and efficiently kept, and in my opinion, the statements shown here-in which were drawn from them give a true picture of the assets and liabilities of the Department of Secondary-School Principals as of December 31, 1934 and of the operations for the year ended December 31, 1934.

Also I wish to thank Mr. H. V. Church and the members of his office staff for the courtesy and coöperation shown me throughout the course of the audit.

Very truly yours,

ANNE M. LORD,
Certified Public Accountant.

*Schedule 1*DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Statement of Securities Owned December 31, 1934

<i>Description</i>	<i>Amount</i>
934 Edgecomb Place Bldg. 6½% due Aug. -, 1935	
No. 211	\$ 500.00
First Mortgage Real Estate Gold bonds on land and building at corner of Austin Ave. and Park Ave., Cicero, Ill. 6% due Aug. 15, 1936, No. 58	500.00
Nos. 61, 62, 63, 70 and 73.....	5,000.00
Leasehold Estate Gold bonds 6% due Jan. 15, 1936	
Nos. 27, 31, 34, 39, 40, 43, 44, 48, 49 and 72....	1,000.00
Nos. 101, 125	1,000.00
First Mortgage Gold Notes 6% due Aug. 24, 1934	
Nos. A, B, C.....	15,000.00*
Alamito Dairy Co. 6½% due May 1, 1936 No. D-52	500.00
Peoria Service Co. 6½% due June 1, 1929 Nos. M-92, 137, 266	3,000.00
Presbyterian Church of Berwyn, Ill. Real Estate Gold bonds 6% due Nov. 1, 1935 Nos. 22, 23, 24	3,000.00
U. S. 4th Liberty Loan bonds 4¼% due Oct. 1, 1933 -38 No. E-02005275, F-02005276, G-02005277..	3,000.00
U. S. Treasury bonds 3¼% due Aug. 1, 1941 Nos. H-63577, B-72992, C-72993, D-72994, E-72995	5,000.00
U. S. Treasury bonds 4¼% due 1947-52 Nos. F-0089126, H-00323738, J-00323739, K-00323740	4,000.00
H.O.L.C. 3% due 1952 Nos. A.M.-67811-A, 411914-D, 411915-E, 421640-L, 421641-A, 311054-D, 311055-E	7,000.00
H.O.L.C. 2¾% due Nos. P-208267H.....	25.00
Nos. T-717617H, T-7176818J, T-717619K.....	300.00
No. X-180526F	500.00
Nos. M-436281A, M-436282B	2,000.00
Tax warrants—Cicero-Stickney Township High School, 6% due Apr. 8, 1933, No. 16210..\$21.34 due May 19, 1933, No. 9835.....	25.00
No. 9838	50.00

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9840	44.00	
10131	36.00	
due June 16, 1933, Nos. 10498, 10499.....	200.00	
10500, 10501, 10502.....	150.00	
10534	30.00	556.34
		<hr/>
Total of securities owned at par.....		\$51,881.34

